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OUR ENGLISH LETTER.

CUMULATIVE OR PROGRESSIVE SENTENCES.

While the death of Mr. Barwick Baker, of Hardwicke, is still fresh in our minds, allow me to call attention to a subject, in the advocacy of which he especially labored. I mean that of cumulative, or, as it is now called, progressive, sentences on criminals. By this is meant the principle that the length of sentences should, *as a general rule*, be regulated not so much by the circumstances of the immediate offence, as by the number of the *previous convictions* of the offender. For a first conviction, the sentence should be short. A second conviction should be met with a greatly increased penalty; and a third should (unless under very exceptional circumstances) entail imprisonment for several years, at least.

It is to be observed that the principle contended for is confined to *professional* or *habitual* crime; or to offences which, if repeated, will assume that character. It has little or no application to crimes of passion and the like. Mr. Baker has discussed this subject much better than I could do it. I shall therefore offer no apology for referring your readers to some extracts from a paper of his, which I append to this letter. The paper is entitled: "On Sentences for Prevention of Crime." It will not be the less acceptable in your eyes, Mr. Editor, when I add that it was written for the International Penitentiary Congress of London, 1872—a Congress which is due to the exertions of the late Rev. Dr. Wines.

To this paper, therefore, I refer inquirers.

It may, however, be interesting to examine how far the principle in question, that of progressive sentences, is actually put in practice in England, at the present time. In other words: How far, as a matter of fact, are sentences framed upon this system? The answer to this inquiry must be that, to a very large extent, sentences are thus regulated. There are few if any judges or magistrates in England, who do not regard the record of previous convictions as a very important element in deciding what sentence is to be passed upon an offender. But there is a want of system about the matter. The discretion left to the judge is almost unlimited. The consequence is great variation. Some judges carry out the principle in question very fully; many to a large extent. But there are others who regard it very imperfectly. And there is no sort of general agreement or understanding on the subject. Each judge or magistrate does too much what is right in his own eyes. The result leaves much to be desired. Not only has the system of progressive sentences no fair play; but (which is of more importance) a weak man, tempted to crime, does not see before his eyes, as plainly as should be the case, the sentence which he may expect in case of conviction. Naturally, therefore, he hopes for a light one.

Nevertheless, although the principle of progressive sentences has been thus partially applied, it has done great good. It is my conviction that, of those improvements which yet remain to be carried out in England, as regards the treatment of crime, there is none which is of more importance than the general adoption and enforcement of the system of progressive sentences. There is nothing which would have a more powerful effect in diminishing crime.

Such, at least, is the result of my experience as a manager of Discharged Prisoners' Aid Societies. Some fifteen years

ago I was Honorary Secretary of what is now the Metropolitan Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society. At that time the principle of progressive sentences (whether under that name or no) was pretty generally acted upon in London. Again and again have I said to a discharged prisoner who was under the care of the society: "Now, you have been convicted twice (or three times) already. If you go wrong again and are caught, as sure as you are standing on that bit of carpet, you will get seven years" (penal servitude). And as often has the man replied: "Yes, sir, I know I shall. And that's why I want to go straight this time." And I generally found such a man to act accordingly.

But when I came into Cheshire, some ten years ago, and was instrumental in forming the Cheshire Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society, the case was otherwise in this respect. In certain of the large towns in and adjoining Cheshire, the principle of progressive sentences was by no means satisfactorily carried out. And I well remember an instance in which, when speaking to a Cheshire discharged prisoner, I used the same arguments, and in much the same words as I have above recounted. But, in this case, the answer was a look of surprise, and the reply: "But, sir, I have known a lot of fellows took up as often as that, and only get six months for it." What I replied, I do not remember; but *that man was reconvicted*.

With these words, I will leave the question in Mr. Baker's hands, and let him, "being dead, yet speak."

T. H. MURRAY BROWNE, J.P.,

Hon. Secretary of the Central Committee of the Prisoners' Aid Societies.
London, etc.

Rhyl, North Wales, December 22d.

Sentences for the Prevention of Crime. By T. B. L. Baker.
Spottiswoode & Co., London, 1872.

What is our object in punishing offenders? I believe that the only true answer can be, that we punish in order to prevent future crime. The past crime is done, and cannot be undone. The future is in some degree in our hands, and may be guarded against; and I apprehend that the guarding against and reducing to the utmost the future crime of the country is in reality our one important object.

If, then, our one object be the prevention of crime, it must be accomplished, first, by preventing the offender from repeating his offence; secondly, by preventing others from following his example. The first is usually called reformation, the second deterrence.

If then the principle of retaliation be entirely laid aside, and if it be held that our only object in punishment is the prevention of future crime, we must give up the accurate estimation of the *degree* of crime which is past and cannot be remedied, and must give ourselves solely to the consideration how we can prevent the crime of the future. This, as I have said, can only be effected by our finding some means of acting on the minds of the large number of mankind who are likely to be tempted beyond their strength. If we are to produce an effect on the minds of these men, it must be by some argument which they can understand.

At the Epiphany Quarter Sessions for the County of Gloucester, 1871, it was, on the motion of T. B. L. Baker, Esq., seconded by Mr. Sergeant Pulling, carried unanimously:

"That this Court, assembled at Gloucester, January 3, 1871, recognize the expediency of adopting a general rule as to sentences for felony, which, while making allowance in exceptional cases, may secure uniformity of practice, be intelligible to the public, and deterrent to those likely to fall into crime; and that the following suggestions be recommended for adoption:

"(1) That when any prisoner is apprehended on a charge of felony, the police be instructed to endeavor to ascertain his antecedents for the last five years, and to enter them in the form provided for the purpose. That if these cannot be ascertained at once, and the evidence on the hearing appear to the justices sufficient for a committal, the prisoner be remanded,

as recommended by the late circular from the Home Secretary, and the truth of any statement the prisoner may make, be inquired into by the police. But that if no antecedents within a reasonable time be shown, he be (as a general rule) committed for trial by indictment.

"(2) If a prisoner, against whom a charge is proved, appear not to have been previously convicted of felony, they would suggest that he should be summarily dealt with, and receive a light sentence—as for a first conviction—namely, ten days, or not exceeding a month, unless in exceptional cases, such as previous bad character, large amount of injury inflicted on the prosecutor, or circumstances showing the prisoner not to be inexperienced in crime. But if it should appear that the prisoner has been previously convicted of any felony or indictable misdemeanor, it should be remembered that, by 24 and 25 Vic. c. 96, such prisoner is liable to penal servitude and cannot *legally* be dealt with under the Criminal Justice Act.

"(3) When such prisoner shall be committed, the governor of the prison, or some officer appointed by him, shall offer to the prisoner every facility for affording any such references as may be to his advantage in proving honesty of life. Careful inquiries shall then be made by the governor or by the police, and the replies shall be communicated to the prisoner, and also to the judge, before passing sentence.

"(4) That it be considered the duty of the governor of the gaol, with the assistance of the police, to make inquiries whether any previous conviction of the prisoner be known; and if so, to give information of the fact to the superintendent of the police of the district where the offence was committed. The superintendent shall forward the information to the prosecutor or his attorney, who shall take care that the evidence necessary for proving it be produced at the trial, as the case will not be complete without it.

"The Court desire that it should be made known that a sentence for felony, after a previous conviction for felony, will, unless in very exceptional cases, be one of not less than six months' imprisonment, with seven years' police supervision; and also, that where *two* previous convictions are shown, and where a sentence for six months' imprisonment, or more, has been undergone, it will generally be deemed that lighter sentences have failed in checking the habit of crime, and that a sentence of seven years' penal servitude is necessary.

"Ordered, That these resolutions be printed, and sent to every acting magistrate of the county."

The chief fact in this system, which, though in the resolutions it is couched in technical language, can be easily explained to the most unreasoning, is: that (with few exceptions) every one, on a first offence, will receive ten days' imprisonment; on a second, six months' imprisonment and seven years of police supervision; and on a third, seven years' penal servitude, with seven more years of police supervision at the end of it. These are plain facts, to be perfectly apprehended by all. Whether they may be considered too stringent, too harsh, is a question which we will argue presently; but at any rate they are intelligible, and the value of the deterrence is not weakened by its uncertainty. No man forgets whether he has been in prison or not. If he has been in prison for ten days, he clearly understands that his next yielding to temptation will cost him six months of imprisonment, followed by seven years of police supervision; and if the knowledge of *this* does not deter him, he at least sins with his eyes open, and has calculated the cost before he committed the offence. In former days, I have many a time had a poor fellow say to me after sentence: "Why, sir, I never thought they'd have given me such a sentence as that; I have known many a man get only three months for what they have given me seven years for." I have often pointed out to such a man why his offence was accounted more serious than the other, and have sometimes, after much talk with him, brought him to see that it was just, *i. e.*, that it was a fair retaliation. At the same time, I could not but feel that the sentence was useless as to its higher object, because, not being understood, it had no effect whatever in strengthening him against the temptation. We had simply inflicted the maximum of pain, with the minimum of prevention.

The first difficulty to be considered—for there must be difficulties in all mortal things—is that of the exceptions to be made in the rule.

Of course, large crimes, such as murder, arson, or burglary, even if no prior offence be known, must be entirely excepted from the light punishment usually given to a first offence.

The possession of false keys, house-breaking implements, or of property found to have been stolen on previous occasions, would be reasons for six or twelve months' imprisonment, even though no previous crime had been detected.

On the other hand, there will be occasional cases, where a second or third conviction may be properly treated as a first. First, if the previous conviction occurred five years ago, and neither that nor the present were of a heinous character, especially if the prisoner be thirty years old, the shortest punishment would probably be sufficient. It will, I think, be found as a fact, though seldom noticed, that very few men go on as habitual criminals (in the real, not the legal, sense of the term) after thirty. Take the ages of all convicted in England (and, from a few slight statistics I have seen, the case appears to be the same in America), you will find that near about three fifths of the whole are under thirty, and very few under the age of sixteen: *ergo*, nearly three fifths of the convictions take place in the fourteen years between sixteen and thirty; but of the other two fifths committed between thirty and sixty, or more, not half are old offenders, so that but a very small portion practically do continue any thing like a habit of stealing, after thirty.

But many complain of the difficulty of tracing antecedents. A man is found stealing, he gives a false name, and we have no means of ascertaining his previous life. In the county I have before quoted, this difficulty is not found to be serious. In by far the larger number of cases, the police, with very little trouble of inquiry, can ascertain the previous history of the offender, for five years at least; and I am bound to say that, be it favorable or otherwise, they generally appear to give it most fairly. Where they cannot do so, the justices invite the prisoner to state his history for the last five years, and if he does so, they remand him for a few days, while the superintendent of police applies to the police of the district in which he states that he has lived, for the truth of his story. If it be correct, and nothing is known against him, he will receive the lightest sentence. But should he again steal, although in another county, and give the same reference, the police will give information of his previous offence, for which the inquiries have been made. If, however, the prisoner refuse to give any account of his previous life, it will be wise to commit him for trial by indictment, and by sending his photograph in a circular from goal to goal, previous convictions are frequently ascertained.

But if the exceptions to the rule be few and easily met, the benefits of the system would, I believe, be very important. So far as we know at present, about four fifths of our convictions are for the first time. When the punishment of a second conviction becomes clearly known and calculated upon, there can be little doubt that relapses will be far less frequent. If so, by far the larger portion of our crimes will be treated summarily, with small cost of prosecution, with small cost of maintenance in jail, and with small loss of healthy free labor to the community. Some will say that a ten days' imprisonment is so slight a punishment as to produce no effect. I think, however, that few who have watched prisoners during their term, especially if they have talked with them afterwards, will doubt the deterrence of a ten days' term. To one who has never before been in jail, the first ten days, especially if coupled, as it may safely be, with a mere bread-and-water diet, is very severe. If the imprisonment be continued for three months, the prisoner becomes used to it, and the pain and dread is worn off, and he tells his friends—and the report spreads through his class—that "the jail is not so bad a place, when you get used to it." To me it appears that such an opinion, spread through the lower classes, is fatal to all our objects in punishment. We give the maximum of pain, the maximum of cost, and the minimum of deterrence. The prisoner suffers all the pain of the first ten days, and loses all the benefit, by staying on and becoming accustomed and callous to it. After a ten days' imprisonment, a man returns to the world, finds his place not filled up, and probably goes on with the same work as before, only feeling that his imprisonment was very painful, and that, if he again offend, he has six months in prospect. If he has had three months, his place of work will be lost, he will have become unused to his particular kind of labor, he will be habituated to prison, and the prospect of six months will have little deterrence for him.

But it is proposed that, on a third conviction, a prisoner shall nearly always be sentenced to seven years' penal servitude. This may be called hard, yet I believe that it would be a most kind hardness. If a man has a punishment set duly before him, he is at least strengthened to the utmost against temptation. If he can, but will not resist, he must bear the punishment; if he is weak and cannot resist, he must not, by a false mercy, be allowed to continue the course of an habitual criminal until he becomes hardened, but must be saved from this far harder lot by long detention.

Nothing is so cruel, nothing so hard, as to allow men to fall into confirmed habits of crime, when we have the power to prevent their doing so. We seek to shield from temptation those who have not yet fallen. Nothing is so dire a temptation to these as the example of a skilful and successful thief. But no man becomes skilful or successful without long practice and several convictions. If you examine the histories of the cleverest thieves on record, you will rarely find a case of one being at liberty more than two years at a time, but if each were committed to seven years' penal servitude on his third conviction, none would have time or opportunity to become a clever or successful thief.

The advantage of such a state to the rich, who possess houses to be robbed, would indeed be great; but I hold this as nothing, in proportion to the blessing it would give to the poor and weak, to be saved from the temptation of the example of an habitual offender, or the still greater blessing it would be to the culprit himself, to be saved from plunging deeper into criminal habits.

But lastly, has such a system ever been tried with success?

Before the year 1856 boys throughout England were punished as men are now, on the retaliative system. I have the records of 456 boys in London who have been four times convicted—many of them eight or ten times—generally for that worst of all terms, three months' imprisonment. In that year the reformatory system, as it was called, came into practice. Though many exceptions were made, it became accepted as the general rule, to sentence every boy (with little or no regard to exact retaliation) to a long term in a reformatory on the second conviction. The consequence was that the number of boys and girls committed to prison under sixteen years of age fell from 13,981 in 1856 to 8,029 in 1860.

This was not the effect of reformation, because we received less than 1,000 boys per annum, and therefore could have reformed no greater number. But as the reduction of crime amounted to nearly 6,000, we may fairly calculate the effect of an intelligible sentence as saving 5,000 from falling.

CALIFORNIA.

The establishment of an Annual Conference of the friends of charity and social reforms on the Pacific coast has become a fact,—and a very important one, I think—after an amount of labor on the part of its projectors which no person could suspect, who is unfamiliar with our peculiar conditions of life.

The first meeting, covering a series of eleven sessions, ended on Saturday, December 11th. It was attended by a remarkably representative body of delegates, more than one hundred and twenty-five in number, from all parts of the coast, despite the almost continuous downpour of rain during the week. Every charity of considerable importance—public or private, religious or secular—was represented in it, including the State institutions of California; also, the judiciary, our local board of health, and the municipal governments of San Francisco and other cities. There was a delegation from Oregon, and another from Los Angeles, in the South. Protestants, Jews, Roman Catholics, and men and women of no religious creed assembled for a common end, with a spirit and purpose like that of the National Conference, but with a more limited scope and a far more cosmopolitan membership. We feel that, crude as were some of the views expressed, the conference has made a deep and wholesome impression upon the public, that good practical results will soon appear, and that we shall have reason to be thankful that it has been brought into existence.

The proceedings are to be printed in book-form; and a committee was appointed to make arrangements for another meeting in November, 1887.

Some months ago, in *Child and State*, I undertook to outline a plan for starting a Pacific Coast Conference. I had long felt that such an annual convocation was the only means by which we could create a healthy public sentiment concerning the questions which would naturally come before it. I invited a number of representative men and women to meet with me and discuss the steps to be taken to bring it about. The result was the appointment of a committee, which fairly represented all the interests concerned. Such had been the uncharitable relations between our different charities, that this was no small matter. By the efforts of this committee the conference was organized.

It met on the evening of Tuesday, December 7th. The mayor of San Francisco (who is also governor-elect of California) welcomed the delegates. The Rev. Dr. A. L. Lindsay, of Oregon, responded. Mr. E. T. Dooley, who had been chosen to preside over the first session, made the opening address.

The following morning, a permanent organization was effected; and then, for four days, followed papers and discussions, on Paroling Prisoners, The Deaf-Mute, Methods of Prevention, The Kindergarten (several papers), The Pardoning Power, Protective Work among Girls, The Failure of Punishment to Repress Crime, Feeble-Minded Children, Manual Training-Schools, The Problem of Raising Funds for Private Charities, The Industrial Training of the Blind, The Work of the Women's Christian Temperance Union, Prison Management, Dependent and Delinquent Children, The Criminal Insane, Charity Organization in Cities.

Before adjourning, resolutions were adopted, recommending the creation of a State Board of Charities for California, and appointing a committee to promote legislation on this subject. The conference expressed itself in favor of "indeterminate" sentences for all offenders against law, and a system of paroling prisoners, like that of Ohio. The discussions on charity organization will, I think, lead to the establishment of associated charities in all our large centres, in the near future. The training of girls for domestic service was a subject—of the gravest importance on this coast—which received much attention.

Altogether, our list of essayists was eminently respectable, and far better than we imagined at first that we could command. Our inexperience was shown in the great length of

the programme, which sadly abridged the time which should have been given to discussion; but in shaping the next meeting the lesson learned will not be forgotten.

We have been working, in California, in the main, not merely on wrong theories, but really according to no idea other than that every social wrong demands an institution as its remedy. That there can be any *science* behind any properly conducted charitable work seems not to have occurred to most of us. Our inclination has been to look with suspicion at those who suggest the substitution of principle for impulse in dealing with the unfortunate. As a consequence, we have been pursuing methods barren of good results, which, with more light, we would long since have abandoned. Our State is full of "institutions"—huge, densely packed caravanseries—to which we point with pride as evidences of our sympathy with the unfortunate and indications of our social progress. I think it safe to say that on these questions our legislation has been as devoid of common sense as in any State upon this continent.

From the books of the State Board of Examiners it appears that we had, on the 30th day of June last, 3,428 children (denominated as orphans, half-orphans, abandoned, and foundlings) maintained, at public expense, in private asylums, at a cost of \$229,941.06 for the year. The number of children here accredited to asylums is as reported by them in presenting their claims upon the State treasury for the last half of the last fiscal year. The number reported for the preceding six months was 3,810. Even this astounding figure does not necessarily cover the total juvenile population of these institutions; it probably does not come within 300 or 500 of doing so. For the law presumes that a considerable number of these young lives are supported by their relatives or friends, without claim upon the funds of the State. I believe that the total population of the asylums for indigent children in California cannot be less than 4,100. Of these, the half-orphans number 71.5 per cent.; the orphans, 16.5 per cent.; the abandoned and foundlings, 12 per cent. Of the \$229,941.06 paid for their sustenance, secular or non-secular institutions receive 19 per cent.; Protestant institutions, 11.1 per cent.; the Hebrew Orphan Asylum, 2.5 per cent.; and Roman Catholic institutions, 67.4 per cent. The average time paid for by the State, for each of these dependents, was ten months and five days, or 85 per cent. of the year. Where such an average is maintained, the movement of population is very slow. Remembering that for a portion of the children in institutions no demand is made for State support, it would seem that the treasury pays for a body of children, from one year to another, composed, to the extent of 95 in every 100, of *the same individuals*.

The following is a statement of the total number of dependent, defective, or delinquent persons in California who were supported *at the public expense* for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1886:

Children supported by the State in private asylums	3,428
Insane patients in the two State asylums	2,935
Convicts in the two State prisons	1,840
Aged persons supported by the State in county and private asylums	1,054
Pupils in the institution for the deaf, dumb, and blind, at Berkeley	165
Adult blind in State homes for adult blind	42
Feeble-minded children in State institution for this class	17
Maintained at State expense	9,481
Add to the above:	
Prisoners in county jails and other houses of detention (in San Francisco alone, 578)	1,156
Paupers not included above	610
Total number of State or county beneficiaries	11,247

From such data as are at my command, I presume that the figures here given fall nearly 3,000 short of the actual number of the dependent, defective, and delinquent in the State, and that California has at least 14,000 who must be enumerated in one or the other of these three classes.

The cost to the State treasury of its share of this burden,

during the last fiscal year, was upward of a million dollars, as follows :

The insane	\$492,545.95
Dependent children	229,941.06
State prisoners	278,366.77
Aged persons	109,927.02
The deaf and dumb and the minor blind	53,545.28
The adult blind	32,727.27
Feeble-minded children	37,139.44
Total	\$1,234,192.79

What do these figures signify? An appalling social condition; legislation devoid of science or sense, which (no matter what its *intention* may be) is most vicious in its consequences. The statistics of the United States indicate 1 of this general class to every 130 of the population at large; those of California, 1 to every 71. Either our laws are at fault, or California is a debased community. The latter we do not concede to be the fact. From the figures given, it would appear that we are intentionally or by our indifference fostering crime and dependence in our midst, peculiar to ourselves. We are sowing the seeds of a whirlwind.

Our county jails all over this coast are pest-houses and breeding-places of crime, in which unfortunates are indiscriminately herded, without regard to age, sex, offence, or sanitary law. The city prison of San Francisco can only be said to be better than the Black Hole of Calcutta. The only public institution for children that we have in the State between the courts and State prisons—the San Francisco Industrial School—exists merely as the spoil of politicians. It is probably the most-expensive and worst-conducted place of the kind in the civilized world.* Over its portal is written: "All hope abandon, ye who enter here." The State prisons are unwieldy establishments. One of them has a population of more than 1,200 convicts, some of them as young as 12 or 13 years of age. There is in them no classification of prisoners. Discharged convicts are turned loose to ply their old business. The fact that four fifths of all our prisoners have no fitness for any honest, productive calling in life provokes no comment; it means nothing to our people or our law-makers. Irrigation—the *water* question—is big with them; on the *rum* question they are silent.

EDMOND T. DOOLEY.

San Francisco, Cal., December 24th.

INCIDENTS OF JAIL LIFE.

By DR. A. G. BYERS.

For many years the friends of prison reform have been battering away at the heavy stone walls, the small, strong, double-or-triple-barred, light-and-air-excluding, foul-air-confining county jails of our country. Some breaches have been made, some advancement secured; but there still remains a public sentiment—if indifference may be characterized as a sentiment—which is stronger in its resistance, more formidable in its obstinacy, more difficult to break through than any mechanical barrier to crime ever constructed. Why the subject of reform in our county jail system should fail to interest the general public, and why, if not demanding an instant change in the entire system, there should be any hesitation in requiring better jail buildings (not necessarily more costly—for light, air, water, and drainage are not very expensive), are questions often asked, and to which but one answer can be given—public indifference.

Perhaps the friends of this reform may be at fault in treating of its importance as an abstract question of public policy, and not in the concrete, as affecting personal and public interests. Let me give you from my personal observations a fact or two.

I once found in a large and, at the time, recently erected

* The RECORD assumes no responsibility for the strong language used by Mr. Dooley in expressing his opinion. We have not seen the school, and know nothing about it.

county jail, three little boys, arrested for incorrigibility, disobedience, truancy, etc., herded with seventeen men representing possibly the average "jail-bird" of our country. Among the adult prisoners were several ex-convicts, one of whom I knew to have served out a second conviction; a wilful and willing scoundrel, who had no excuse whatever for his criminality. The boys had evidently come to regard this prisoner with more than ordinary interest. This was natural; for "Abe" had been "over the road twice"—the road that these boys were likely to travel—and the incidents of the "route" would possess an interest to them equal to the best story of adventure ever told by Paul Du Chaillu.

Another thing: this convict was not unkind. He was, in other words, "good-natured." Did you ever know a boy that did n't take kindly to good-natured people? Well, these boys were being entertained by the talk of this prisoner. Observing this fact, and presuming upon personal acquaintance, I took Abe to one side and pointed out to him, in a few words, what the result of such association and the possible influence of his example would be, in moulding the future character of those boys. I then asked him if he would be willing to tell these boys of his past life, with a view to leading them into corresponding paths. I wish that you, Mr. Editor, and I wish that every reader of the RECORD could have seen the expression of hurt feelings, of injured innocence, upon the face of that convict, as he turned upon me with indignant denial, couched, of course, in the jail vernacular: "*What do you take me for?*" What this hardened criminal would not do, an intelligent Christian community did do, and is doing to-day. That jail stands in the shadow of a court-house that cost \$500,000. One, at least, of the boys of whom I have spoken, has served no less than three terms in our State prison.

In the jail above described there was no alternative. No separation of prisoners, no classification could be made. Old and young, adept and novice, were necessarily herded together.

In another jail, I found the only possible classification of prisoners being maintained. There were two corridors, into which, on either side, the cells opened, the cells being back-to-back; the corridors were entered by different doors. In one corridor two men, recently brought in from a drunken debauch, were confined with other men; one of the two was wild, and fairly raving with delirium tremens; his pleadings for whiskey were pitiable to the last degree.

After inspecting the disordered cells and the general rack and ruin of the one side, I turned to enter, through another grated door, the opposite corridor. Pressing against the cold, hard grating of the door was the face of a boy apparently ten or twelve years old. His sad look, red and swollen face, and the irrepressible tears that he tried in vain to hide, led to inquiry concerning him. He had been "trespassing," and when ordered off the premises had been saucy and defiant; so he had been arrested and thrown into this jail. In the same corridor were another boy and several men—one of the men, a wife-murderer, with the blood of his brutal crime fresh upon him. Here, with such immediate associates, and in full hearing (from the opposite corridor) of the wild raving of drunken maniacs, this boy, thoughtless, possibly, but innocent of any real crime, was thrown, to endure a suffering such as only can come to one horrified with surroundings from which there is no escape, and overwhelmed with a sense of shame that could find its only expression in tears. These tears fell in sight of men as heartless as the grated bars against which he pressed in vain hope to hide his grief. It was a sad picture—one from which ordinary humanity instinctively turns away.

Yet, sad as it was, that picture was relieved very strongly by one upon which were drawn, if possible, darker and deeper traces of sadness.

As we (the sheriff and myself) were leaving the jail, and he was about to lock the outer door, there came another child with face *so sad*, and with sighs that were but ill-re-

pressed sobs and outcries of a burdened heart. It was a little girl, now possibly seven years old, plainly but comfortably clad. Wiping away her tears with her apron, she approached the sheriff, and with a voice that spoke at once of her sense of shame and her great sorrow, she said: "*Mr. Sheriff, may n't I see my papa this morning?*" That child's father was charged with an offence of which (so the sheriff said) it was scarcely possible that he could be guilty. This man was in the corridor with the mad victim of drink; and now, in full sight and hearing of these wild, half-naked men, that child must come, and through the grated door her word of cheer and comfort for the father she loved must be spoken, and on the cold pavement of that dreary prison her fruitless tears must fall.

To cry out against such conditions, to point out the wrong, to plead for something better, is regarded as mere sentimentality and denounced as morbid sympathy with wrong-doers. Call it so. The foregoing are facts, the worst feature of which is that they are not uncommon.

The possibility of such occurrences ought to be put forever away; but this will not be until a radical change in the construction and management of our jails shall take place.

EDWARD LIVINGSTON.

Edward Livingston, the author of the "Livingston Penal Code," was born at Clermont, Columbia county, New York, on the 26th of May, 1764. He was the youngest of eleven children, ten of whom lived to old age, ranging from sixty-six to ninety-eight years, and all or nearly all of them occupied an elevated social position in life. His father was a judge of the supreme court in the colony of New York, and his mother was a wealthy and high-bred girl, Margaret Beekman. On his father's side he could trace his descent from Sir Alexander Livingstone, of Calendar, one of the joint regents of Scotland during the minority of James II.

Edward was graduated at Princeton College, New Jersey, in 1781, at the early age of seventeen. After four years spent in the study of the law he was admitted to the bar in 1785.

In December, 1794, he was elected from the city of New York as a member of the fourth Congress of the United States; and he was reelected in 1796 and 1798 to the two following Congresses. He was in the opposition under both Washington and Adams. The close of his first congressional career was signalized by the election of Mr. Jefferson to the presidency, in the House of Representatives. Livingston supported Jefferson, though Burr had been his fellow-student at Albany, and was from his own State and city. Jefferson was not chosen until the thirty-sixth ballot.

"Only a few days after Mr. Livingston had first taken his seat in Congress," says his biographer, "he offered a resolution that a committee be appointed 'to inquire and report whether any and what alterations should be made in the penal laws of the United States, by substituting milder punishments for certain crimes, for which infamous and capital punishments are now inflicted.' The committee was appointed, and he was made its chairman. Later in the same month he offered a second resolution, which was carried, requesting the President to obtain, for the information of Congress, detailed statements respecting the trials and convictions which had taken place under the existing laws. This information was not furnished. A year afterwards Mr. Livingston moved for the appointment of a committee 'to inquire and report whether any and what alterations are necessary in the penal laws of the United States, and that they report by bill or otherwise.' The motion prevailed, and he was appointed chairman of the new committee. I do not find that the latter ever made any report, and the matter is only mentioned for the purpose of showing how early the general subject of the Livingston Code had engaged the attention of its author."

The same month in which he retired from Congress he lost his wife by scarlet-fever. A few days later he received

from Mr. Jefferson a commission appointing him United States attorney for the district of New York. In August of the same year he was appointed also mayor of the city of New York. Both these appointments, being for short terms at first, were renewed the next winter.

While mayor, he proposed to the Mechanic Society that it should unite with the municipal government to found an establishment in which to assure the employment of those who required it, including discharged convicts from the State prison; but the society declined to entertain the project.

In the summer of 1803 the yellow-fever invaded the city, but Livingston would not desert his post. He kept a list of the houses in which there were any sick, and visited them all, as well as the hospitals, every day; he even went about the city at night, to see for himself if the watchmen were thorough in their duty. Finally, he was himself taken down with the pestilential fever. When his physicians called for Madeira to be administered to him, not a bottle of that or any other wine was to be found in his cellars; he had given it all away to others afflicted with the disease.

At this time occurred the principal misfortune of his life. He had the common fault of literary men—carelessness in money matters. As attorney of the United States, he was receiver of public moneys collected by him, principally on custom-house bonds. He left the management of this part of his business to a confidential clerk; and when, early in August, while the yellow-fever was at its height in the city, his attention was called by the government to the state of his accounts, it appeared that, without funds in his possession, he was indebted to the United States in an amount ultimately ascertained to be \$43,666.21. He resigned both the offices which he held, confessed judgment, and devoted the remainder of his life to the effort to clear himself of this indebtedness, principal and interest, which in the end he accomplished, though not without a great struggle.

In April, 1803, we had purchased Louisiana from France. The prospect that New Orleans would become a great commercial city, his familiarity with the French language, and his acquaintance with and admiration for the principles of the civil law, suggested to him the probability of more rapid success in accumulating a fortune there than in New York; and, though he was compelled to leave his children behind him, he embarked in December, and after a voyage of six or seven weeks, landed in New Orleans, February 7, 1804.

The transfer of Louisiana to the United States necessitated a revision of the code of civil procedure, a task which was entrusted to Livingston, and on the 10th of April, 1805, the legislature adopted an entire system of practice framed by him, consisting of twenty-two sections, and extending only to twenty-five printed pages.

We omit to speak of the trials of his life in his new home, including a famous litigation between himself and the ex-President and former friend, Thomas Jefferson, as to his title to a piece of ground fronting on the river, and known as the "Batture Ste. Marie."

He happily married, in 1805, a second wife—Madame Louise Moreau de Lassy, the widow of a gentleman from Jamaica, who survived him.

During the war of 1812, he co-operated with General Jackson and served as his aid in the battle of New Orleans.

In February, 1821, he was elected by joint ballot of the General Assembly of Louisiana to revise the entire system of criminal law of the State. He reported at the next session his whole plan. The legislature approved the report, and urged the author to prosecute his work. Under this sanction he proceeded, and two years later was ready to submit, for legislative action, the complete result of his studies: a system of penal law divided into codes, books, chapters, sections, and articles, accompanied by several introductory essays. We quote from his biography by Charles Havens Hunt:

At this important point he met with a disaster well calculated to put an end to his enterprise, and extinguish his ambition. He had given the final, lingering touches to the draft of his work. An engrossed copy, for

the printer, had been made. One night he sat up late to finish the task of comparing the two papers. That task was done, and with it the great mental undertaking. Relieved of a long-borne and heavy, though not distasteful burden, he went to sleep. An alarm of fire awoke him. He rushed to the room where he had left his papers. Both draft and copy were reduced to ashes. The next morning he sat down to the work of reproducing the vanished structure. He was then sixty years of age. In two years more, the reproduction was complete—a phoenix of what had been destroyed.

The code prepared by him has never been adopted by the State of Louisiana, but it made for its author an instantaneous and world-wide fame.

In 1823 he again entered Congress as a member of the House from his adopted State, and remained in it for three terms, or six consecutive sessions. At the expiration of this time, the legislature elected him a Senator of the United States, and he took his seat on the day that Andrew Jackson entered upon the Presidency.

On the 3d of March, 1831, he was granted leave to introduce a bill providing for the use of the general government a penal code substantially identical with that prepared by him for the State of Louisiana. It was printed; but at the coming session he had ceased to be a Senator, having been called to the cabinet as Secretary of State, to succeed Van Buren, who was a candidate for the Presidency and resigned the position on that ground.

During the first year of his service as Secretary, M. de Tocqueville visited the United States, charged with the official errand of examining our penitentiary system, a labor in which Livingston was to give him efficient and substantial aid.

In the spring of 1833 he was chosen foreign associate of the Institute of France (Academy of Moral and Political Sciences).

From the cabinet he went, in May, 1833, to Paris as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to France. During a visit made by him to Switzerland and Germany, in the autumn of 1834, he was shown, at Geneva, a monument in the form of a temple, erected by M. de Sellon and consecrated "to the inviolability of the life of man," on the *façade* of which were twelve inscriptions, one of which was: "A Livingston. Il demanda l'abolition de la peine de mort à l'Amérique."* In May, 1835, owing to disagreements between this country and France, familiar to every student of American history, but afterwards adjusted, he demanded his passports and returned home in the frigate *Constitution*. A year later, he was dead. He is buried at Clermont, where he was born; and in the village of Rhinebeck, on the Hudson, may be seen the memorial tablet placed by his wife and daughter in the Dutch Reformed Church, which describes him as "a man, for talents equalled by few, for virtues surpassed by none."

LEGISLATION ON INSANITY.

The best place in which to obtain an idea of the practical working of the Illinois lunacy law is in the court-room of the county court of Cook county, in the city of Chicago, on a Thursday morning. Thursday is known in the court and in the newspapers as "insane day," because at that time the judge disposes of the cases of alleged insanity which have accumulated on his hands during the week.

The court-room is in the upper story of the building in which the county jail is situated. On the floor below, special apartments have been provided for the care of insane persons awaiting trial. There is a long and wide corridor in the centre of what was formerly the collector's office, and large, comfortable rooms have been partitioned off on each side of it, for the accommodation of patients. In each of these rooms there are two beds. An alcove on one side of the corridor in the centre affords a not unpleasant sitting-room. The capacity of this ward is for about a dozen patients. Across the hall is another and stronger

ward, with cells built of plank, in a double tier, back to back, surrounded by a corridor on all four sides. This is intended for the violent insane, and one cell is a padded room. The whole is under the charge of a keeper and his wife, who reside in the building. In the keeper's office is a small dispensary, with the necessary drugs. There is, of course, no resident physician, but the county physician visits the patients daily and gives the requisite orders with regard to their treatment.

This receptacle for the insane was opened on the 7th of March, 1883, and up to the 30th of September, 1886, there had been registered 2,753 inmates (of whom, however, not all were insane; it is also used for the reception and confinement of dependent girls awaiting the hearing and order of the court). During the year ending September 30, 1886, the number of inmates was 971, of whom 870 were placed in it on account of their alleged insanity. The disposition made of them was as follows: The number discharged as recovered prior to trial was 240; 530 were ordered to be committed to an insane hospital, namely, 495 to the County Insane Asylum at Jefferson, 21 to Kankakee, 11 to Elgin, and 3 to Batavia; 26 were sent to the County Infirmary; 10 to the County Hospital; 2 to the Alexian Brothers' Hospital; 1 to Mercy Hospital; 1 to the Marine Hospital; 4 to the Washingtonian Home; 7 escaped; 5 died; 1 was discharged as not insane; 2 were taken by their friends; and 41 were turned over to the county agent, most of whom were sent out of the county, or State, on account of their being non-residents. From this statement it appears that the court disposes on an average of twelve cases every week.

The number of cases on the Cook county court lunacy docket for the year ending March 31, 1886, was 619, namely: 348 males and 271 females, of whom 519 were adjudged to be insane, and 100 were adjudged to be not insane. The number of insane cases in the State of Illinois, during the same period, was 1,668, of which 1,526 were adjudged to be insane and 142 not insane. In other words, the ratio of negative to affirmative verdicts, outside of Cook county, is 42 to 1,049; but in that county it is 100 to 519 (or, if we add the cases detained on a charge of insanity, but released without trial, it is about 1 to 3). From this it must be inferred that allegations of insanity are brought against individuals in Chicago without much substantial basis, while in the country there is almost always good ground for such allegation.

It will be further observed, by comparison of the figures given in the two preceding paragraphs, that there can be very few cases upon the judge's docket which are not also entered on the register of the insane receptacle below stairs.

The proceedings in court are as follows; Two juries are empanelled, of six members each, and the foreman of each of them is a physician. The judge takes his seat upon the bench. The patients are brought into the court-room, one by one. Outside of the railing may be seen a crowd of persons of both sexes, who appear to be for the most part the witnesses in the several cases to be adjudicated on the morning when they are present. The members of one of the juries for the day take their seats at the right of the judge, and on his left are his clerks. Directly in front of the jury is a raised chair, for the witnesses in the case. The alleged lunatic occupies a chair at the right of the witness, immediately facing the jury, and in easy sight and hearing of the judge. Behind the patient is a table, at which are seated the official reporter of the court (who makes a minute in short-hand of the principal points contained in the testimony, which are afterwards entered upon a special record for future reference) and also the reporters for the city daily journals. The county physician (who is, next to the patient, the most conspicuous figure of all who are in attendance) stands within the bar, in front of the judge's bench, in a position from which he can address by turns the patient, the witness, the jury, and the judge. The patient having taking his seat, the

* To Livingston, who demanded the abolition of the death-penalty in America.

names of the witnesses are called, and those present come forward to take the oath. The county physician, in a majority of cases, is sworn as a witness with the rest, inasmuch as he has had an opportunity to observe the patient and form an opinion of his mental condition. In a small proportion of cases, he is the only witness. For the most part it is not necessary to interrogate more than one or two of the attending witnesses. This examination is conducted principally by the county physician, who, at the proper time, takes his seat in the witness-chair and gives his own opinion. Inasmuch as Chicago is a cosmopolitan city, and a large number of patients are of foreign birth (principally Germans), he sometimes acts also as interpreter.

One of the questions usually asked of each witness is: "Do you think this person insane?" Sometimes the appearance, actions, and conversation of the patient are such as to leave no room for doubt as to his state, and in that event the case is very summarily disposed of. In other cases, a long account is given, by the patient's relatives or friends, of his demeanor when at home; and occasionally sad revelations are made of domestic infelicity, extending over longer or shorter periods of time, and culminating in the trial of the patient at the bar. Where the insanity is doubtful, particularly if the patient is adroit, glib with the tongue, and thoroughly upon his guard, the trial is sometimes quite protracted, and it may be adjourned to another sitting of the court, for the purpose of giving longer time for observation of the patient in the ward below. If the judge makes up his mind from the testimony, or from the patient's appearance and behavior, that he is not insane, he discharges him summarily, without reference to the jury. If the case goes to the jury, jury no. 1 retires to an adjoining room, and while the members are engaged in consultation, jury no. 2 takes its place in the jury-box. Thus the two juries rotate, one being always in the court-room while the other is out. If a patient is very demonstrative and noisy, or very feeble, the jury is sometimes permitted to go down stairs and make the necessary examination there, in the absence of the judge, who remains upon the bench. As a rule, very few questions are asked of any patient by the physician who is foreman of the jury, and only now and then one by the judge. The principal part of the examination is conducted by the county physician, whose opinion very largely controls the action of the jury.

Two impressions are made upon the mind of an intelligent and impartial spectator of the scene just described. One is, that (so far as is apparent on the surface) the verdict of the jury is not based upon any medical diagnosis of the physical symptoms of disease of the brain, such as would affect the opinion of a physician, but upon the patient's conduct and conversation in court, (or elsewhere, as it is described by the witnesses upon the stand). In a word, the jury seems to be a piece of legal machinery for the confirmation and registration of the opinion of the county physician, out of deference to the formalities prescribed by law. The other impression is that, in some cases at least, the verdict is perhaps unduly influenced by pecuniary considerations—that is to say, the man or woman upon trial may be in fact insane, but if not so insane as to prevent him or her from taking part in the active work of life, and earning his or her own living, the patient is sometimes discharged, rather than inflict upon the county treasury the burden of his support. This is of course not the only motive. Motives of humanity also operate to bring about the same result. It is a dreadful thing to be branded as insane, and confined to an insane asylum or hospital; therefore the patient is given the benefit of every doubt, as in a criminal trial, notwithstanding the fact that insanity, if neglected, tends to become chronic, and that it is the patient's real and highest interest to receive competent medical treatment at the earliest practicable moment.

The present county judge approves of the existing law of commitment of lunatics, and thinks that, but for the publicity given to the whole proceeding, there would be danger

that persons might be certified to be insane and confined as such, from interested motives. We do not share this opinion, but believe that, should any such case occur, a person not in fact insane would be promptly discharged by the medical superintendents of the institutions provided by the State for the care of lunatics. He also thinks that it is a relief to the judge, not to have the responsibility of passing upon the doubtful cases in person. This we can readily believe; but it seems to us that the acceptance of the verdict of the jury (inasmuch as he sometimes sets it aside) involves as complete and direct responsibility upon his part, as would the acceptance of the report of a commission of physicians appointed by him to examine a person alleged to be insane and make an official report to the court of their observations and conclusions. Such an examination would be likely to be far more thorough, from a medical point of view, and its result more worthy of confidence, than the opinion of a jury, based upon the very cursory investigation made in the court-room, where the pressure upon the judge's time is necessarily great, and the amount of time which can be given upon an average to each case extremely limited. The time consumed in hearing and passing upon from twelve to twenty cases is ordinarily less than three hours. If, in reply to this, it is said that the jury has the benefit of the opinion of the county physician, who has had opportunity to make a leisurely and careful medical examination, we answer: why should not that report be made to the judge, and acted upon by him, without the intervention of the jury? What force does the presence or action of a jury add to the final conclusion? So far as we can see, none whatever.

We are convinced that there is, on the part of many persons, such a natural shrinking from the exposure involved in a public trial, at which newspaper reporters are present, and it is certain that the facts in the case will be spread before the whole community upon the following day, that there must be numerous instances in which a delay occurs in taking the initial steps for the patient's commitment, which is prejudicial, if not fatal, to his ultimate recovery. It cannot be otherwise. The fact that the court is not informed as to this reluctance, and consequent procrastination, signifies nothing. The most difficult thing in the world, as physicians know very well, is to induce the members of an insane patient's family to agree to his removal from home, until the disease has made such progress as to render it apparent that such removal is no longer avoidable. The hesitation of which we speak is responsible, no doubt, for a very considerable part of the chronic insanity, which is so great a burden, not only to the patient's immediate friends but to the community at large. For, if any thing has been demonstrated beyond the possibility of dispute, it is that insanity is a disease easily curable in its incipient stages, if taken in time, but which tends to become chronic at a very early period in its development. It is this argument, the force of which will be recognized by medical men, but is not equally apparent to members of the legal profession, which, when established by actual illustrative instances, as it can be, should attach the seal of condemnation to the Illinois jury law.

THE KANKAKEE TRAINING-SCHOOL.

On the occasion of a recent visit to the Illinois Eastern Hospital for the Insane, at Kankakee, we had an opportunity to see the practical working of the training-school for attendants recently organized in that institution.

The lectures are prepared by Dr. Dewey, the medical superintendent in charge, and two copies made of each lecture, so that his first assistant can take one class while he takes the other. Every attendant is furnished with a small blank-book into which the "quiz" on the lecture must be copied, the answers committed to memory, and the books returned to the office for inspection. To show the character of this weekly exercise, we print, by permission of Dr. Dewey, one

of the earlier lectures of the course and the questions upon it.

Lecture.

One remark will apply to all our work, but is especially important in connection with our study and description of patients. This remark is, that thoughtfulness for the feelings of patients is the habit of mind which every attendant should constantly exercise.

This is to be remembered particularly, as those under our care will now be made the subjects of discussion in the class and with one another.

What we should avoid is the making of any remarks to patients, or in their presence, which would inform them that their personal conduct or condition is under discussion and treated in any manner as public property.

All will readily see how the feelings of some patients might be hurt in this way, but there are others who perhaps appear quite indifferent to this and everything else. But in such cases let us not forget that many patients recover, and that others, who to all outward appearance are quite stupid and inactive, are yet fully conscious of all that goes on around them, and will one day wake up to a more natural condition of mind.

The principle which every member of the school should act upon is to treat everything said in these classes, or written in our lesson-papers about patients, as private and confidential matters belonging only to the school and to ourselves. It will be well, in writing of patients, to use initials or number on ward-report. And this brings us to the central idea of the present lesson, which is that of "putting ourselves in the patient's place."

In order to "do as we would wish to be done by," it is necessary to think as nearly as possible how we would feel in the place of the person we have to deal with, and this is what is meant by "putting yourself in his place."

In this process it is necessary to make one exception; yes, two. First, it must be understood that only right conduct is referred to; and second, that only a sane mind must be the standard. For instance, a small boy objects to going to school, and may say: "I would n't make my father go to school if he was a little boy." But we all nevertheless admit that it is right for children to go to school. And one of our patients might ask for a knife, and say: "I would give you a knife, if I had one, and you asked for it." These two sorts of "doing as you would wish to be done by" must be ruled out, but do not affect the principle, which is always a safe and wise one if exercised with common-sense.

Let us endeavor, then, to conceive how some things look from a patient's standpoint.

In the first place, a patient in a hospital might say (and many are fully smart enough to do so): "This institution was built for me and those who are afflicted as I am. These doctors are here to give me the best care and treatment in their power; the attendants are here to help me get well if I can, and to make me as comfortable as possible if I can't; yes, and all the departments and individuals belonging to the institution are only here to contribute as far as possible to the welfare of the patients, whatever the work may be of any one person." This statement would be true, and yet as the patients are confined in the hospital under authority and control, it would be very hard for them to secure their dues unless those having care of them were disposed always to do right by them. The position of the patient is one of great disadvantage, as we shall see by considering how we would like to be locked up and obliged to be under orders concerning every movement made and everything we did, while not at all realizing our insane condition.

Now it is plain that each and every person in the employ of the hospital has a just share of duty, and if attendants get the habit of thinking to themselves, when any question arises as to their conduct: "How would I like to have the attendant do, if I were the patient?" they will rarely decide amiss. (Examples: getting patients out to amusements or exercise, accommodating them in a thousand and one little ways, etc.) Of one thing we can be sure, kindness and good-will are acceptable, the world over, to sane and insane. Kindness wins sooner or later; if it is unfeeling, it will at last gain over the hardest heart, like the continual dropping that wears away a stone.

We have some patients who are called very hard and bad, but I am firmly of the belief that there is not one of them who would not be better and less troublesome, if unfeeling kindness had been used with him or her. There are many patients to whom nobody ever thought of being kind, all their lives long, up to the time they became insane; and then, perhaps they fell into ignorant or brutal hands of those who thought that the way to deal with them was to conquer them through fear or force, and so their tempers and dispositions were spoiled, before they saw the hospital. But it is never too late to begin the right way, and many are the instances in which we have already seen patients regarded as altogether bad and desperate and beyond redemption, very greatly improved by the better ways of forbearance and kindness.

There are some questions raised by members of the class suggested by our last lesson. One is, whether insane persons are ever in any degree responsible; another, whether it is our right to use punishment with insane patients; another, whether the nerves cannot be diseased, without a person being insane.

In regard to the question whether insane persons are ever in any degree responsible for their acts, the answer will be anticipated by most attendants of experience; for we constantly see patients exercising self-control, and, so far as they can control their acts and know the right from the wrong, they are to a certain extent morally responsible, although the law would not hold them so in any degree. But there must ever remain a doubt as to the full accountability of any patient duly committed to the hospital as insane. So far as we are concerned, we must give the patient the benefit of that doubt; and closely connected with the question of responsibility is that of penalties and punishments, in regard to which it can only be said that, so long as a doubt exists as to the mental soundness of any patient, we should be in error in inflicting any punishment; for the theory of the law, and the rule of right would coincide in the statement that it is better that one hundred wrong-doers should go free, than that one innocent person should suffer unjustly.

But although patients cannot and should not be punished for acts that would be wrong in sane persons, but rather with kindness won from such acts, there are certain consequences that follow ill-behavior, which, though not used or thought of as punishments, have the effect on the patient of a penalty for wrong acts. For instance, if a patient breaks windows or pictures or destroys books, he has to be conveyed to a ward where these articles are not provided. If a patient violates his parole it is taken away, etc.

In regard to the question whether the nerves can be affected without a patient being insane, the reply is: both the nerves and brain may be diseased, without a patient being insane; but a person cannot be insane without brain and nerves being affected. What is commonly called "nervousness" is a weakness or disease of the nervous system, and may or may not go to the length of insanity. There are spinal diseases and injuries and tumors of the brain, that do not produce insanity. (Give illustrations of above, crow-bar story, etc.)

One more point suggested by the question of the last lesson. The answer to one of the questions was, that the insane are not fit to be trusted with their liberty, but a mistake made by several in writing this answer was that the insane are not to be trusted, *leaving out* "with their liberty." These were important words to be included in the question, for we all know, or should know, that many of the insane are just as reliable and truthful, and can just as fully be trusted within certain bounds, as sane persons. (Give instances, paroled patients, etc., many faithful workers, etc.)

Quiz.

Question 1.—What habit of mind should attendants seek to acquire towards their patients?

Answer 1.—That of thoughtfulness for their feelings.

Ques. 2.—How should all discussions and descriptions of patients which are used in the school be regarded?

Ans. 2.—As private and confidential matters belonging only to the school and to ourselves.

Ques. 3.—What is the principal idea of the present lesson?

Ans. 3.—That of putting ourselves in the patient's place.

Ques. 4.—What exception would there be to the rule of doing as we would wish to be done by?

Ans. 4.—The rule does not apply when something wrong or injurious is desired.

Ques. 5.—What is the chief and only object for which the hospital exists?

Ans. 5.—The protection of the community and the benefit of the patients.

Ques. 6.—Why are the patients at a great disadvantage in the hospital?

Ans. 6.—Because all authority and control of themselves or others is taken away from them, and they are entirely in the hands of persons placed in charge over them.

Ques. 7.—What is the natural tendency on the part of those having complete control of patients?

Ans. 7.—The tendency of having such complete control of patients is toward the danger of overlooking the patients' rights.

Ques. 8.—What is the remedy for the tendency to overlook patients' rights?

Ans. 8.—A spirit of justice and fairness on the part of all in charge.

Ques. 9.—What is a good guide in deciding about our duty towards patients?

Ans. 9.—Putting ourselves in the patient's place.

Ques. 10.—Are insane persons ever to such an extent responsible as to deserve punishment?

Ans. 10.—No. Punishment belongs chiefly to responsible persons who have broken the laws, and it is better that we should not think of what we do as punishment.

Ques. 11.—How then is discipline to be maintained, if punishment is not allowed?

Ans. 11.—The things it is necessary to do for the welfare of the patient or of others supply all needful discipline.

Ques. 12.—Are insane persons ever to any extent responsible?

Ans. 12.—Yes. There is no doubt some have a partial responsibility, but it is not for us to judge how much.

Ques. 13.—Why is it not best for us to judge?

Ans. 13.—Because it is not necessary, and any human being is liable to mistake in judging.

ASSISTED EMIGRATION.

The *London Times* (December 14th) contained a letter from an English Member of Parliament, Mr. Samuel Smith, a prominent philanthropist of Liverpool, on the emigration of children. We reproduce the principal portions of this letter elsewhere. Mr. Smith is delighted with the results which have followed the assisted emigration of children to Canada, on a limited scale, and his enthusiasm leads him gravely to suggest that there are 400,000 children, in the public and private institutions of Great Britain, or in the receipt of out-door relief, who are costing the people of the United Kingdom \$20,000,000 or \$25,000,000 a year for their support. Why might they not be shipped to the colonies? Canada has given a cordial welcome to those already sent. Think what a blessing to the children their expatriation would be! And it would be such a lightening of the financial burdens of the British tax-payer! No wonder that he exclaims: "Were any statesman to make this a great national question, and carry it to a successful solution, he would win well-earned fame, and prove one of the greatest benefactors to the British people."

If Mr. Smith would only himself undertake the task which he recommends to some one else, he would find that the question would very soon expand to the dimensions of an international rather than a national question. There are interests involved in it other than those of the British people, though that view of it does not seem to have occurred to him.

The United States, to be sure, is not an English colony. But Canada is so related to this country, geographically and otherwise, that we could not view with indifference the transportation of 400,000 or any other considerable number of dependent children, including the inmates of "workhouse, industrial and reformatory schools," from England to the Dominion. Already there is a wide suspicion, on the part of the American people, that British criminals and paupers, who are shut out of our own ports, are sent to us in large numbers by the way of Canada. Mr. Smith's letter demonstrates the existence of a desire, on England's part, to rid herself of her own burdens at the expense of her neighbors, which goes a long way to confirm those suspicions. It is worthy of note, too, that he is aware that the Canadian farmers "will not take workhouse children," and therefore workhouse children must be subjected to a course of "preliminary training" in a temporary home, before being sent out. This strikes us as a bit of decidedly sharp practice on the poor Canadian farmers, precisely like that which occurs when an Irish pauper is landed in New York with ready money, furnished by the authorities at home, in his pocket, to insure his admission into the country.

But why should we complain of England? Do not our own county superintendents and overseers of the poor furnish transportation to paupers from one county to another, and even in some cases to a point outside the State? And do not societies exist, in the eastern States, whose avowed purpose is to find homes for the pauper children of their great cities in "the west"? In the annual report of the State Charities Aid Association of New York for 1885 we are informed that "an offer was made by the Children's Aid Society to find homes in the west for all the healthy Westchester county children of white parentage" who were maintained in institutions at the expense of that county. In the report of the same Association for the year previous, mention was made of "eight children sent west from the Suffolk County Temporary Home"—children transferred to that establishment from the county poorhouse.

It is useless to expect those who wish to rid their own neighborhoods of children who are a burden to them, to consider the natural rights of those on whose shoulders they seek to unload them. The only remedy is found in self-protection, by taking steps to prevent such imposition being suc-

cessfully practised. This is at best a difficult undertaking, but it is not beyond the bounds of possibility.

To the Editor of the Times:

SIR—Permit me to refer to Mr. Tallack's letter of the 23d of November on this subject. I have had much experience of child emigration to Canada, and believe that it is capable of being developed to so large an extent as to become one of the best remedial agencies for the poverty of this overcrowded country. Let me first relate what our experience has been. Liverpool, as you are doubtless aware, abounds in miserable, half-clad, destitute children. Some thirteen years ago my late lamented friend, Mr. Alexander Balfour, induced Mrs. Birt, sister of Miss Macpherson, of London, the pioneer of this work, to undertake a similar work here. A committee was formed, a temporary home selected, and we began taking in destitute orphans and what are called "waifs and strays," and gave them a few months' kindly and religious training, and then sent them out in bands to Canada. A receiving home was secured on the other side, and Mrs. Birt and other helpers accompanied these bands and placed them out comfortably among the Canadian farmers, taking every security for the character of the homes in which they were placed.

The result of the thirteen years' experiment has been a wonderful success. We have planted out in happy homes about 2,000 children, mostly of the destitute class—many of them wretched objects when they came under our care—and, with very few exceptions, they have grown up to be healthy men and women, and do not show a trace of their unhappy childhood. Many have been adopted by their Canadian foster-parents, and have become possessed of property; and, take them as a whole, they are as good a class of emigrants as the colony could wish for. There are, of course, a few exceptions. We reckon that about 5 per cent. of our little emigrants give trouble afterwards, and for their sake we keep open the receiving home in Canada, so that they can be taken back if the farmers cannot get on with them, and a very few of such have found their way back here.

The Canadian government is entirely favorable to the movement, and several of the leading ministers have commended it in the highest terms. For instance, the Deputy Minister of Agriculture has expressed himself, in a letter to Mrs. Birt, as follows:

"In the first place let me tell you, Madam, that I have especially, and the department has generally, a very-high appreciation of the value of your work. In fact, I find it, as I believe I have before told you, beneficent to the children themselves, and an advantage to this country of Canada, while it is at the same time a relief to the overcrowded population from which they are taken. In these circumstances there has been a desire to afford you every possible facility, for the reason that it was felt that your young emigrants were protected, and very desirable for the country."

The experience of our work in Liverpool has been reproduced on a larger scale in London. There Miss Rye, Miss Macpherson, and Dr. Barnardo have emigrated several thousand children with marked success. Mr. Quarries, of Glasgow, Mr. Middlemore, of Birmingham, and others are following suit, and I believe over 10,000 children have been placed in Canada since this beneficent work began.

The main point of this letter is what I have now to say. Why cannot we apply this admirable system of emigration to the vast numbers of children brought up at the cost of the state? Mr. Tallack states correctly that there are 82,000 children maintained in England and Wales in workhouse, industrial, and reformatory schools, costing the rate-payers probably about £20 per head per annum when the full cost of the establishment is taken into account. We may safely put the cost at a million and a half sterling per annum. Most of these children are kept for five years, so that each child costs the state about £100; and then when they are returned to the community, at the age of thirteen to sixteen, a very considerable proportion is got hold of by their degraded relatives and drawn back into the vice and idleness of the slums of our great cities. I do not blame the training of these institutions; they are wonderfully improved from what they were; some of our district and industrial schools are models of good discipline. But children brought up in masses rarely do so well as those brought up in families; girls especially lack that development of the affections which domestic life alone can give, and it is melancholy to see how many of them find their way into penitentiaries afterwards.

No one who has examined our Canadian system will for a moment compare the chances of the children there with that of the best-trained children placed out in this country. They are far healthier and happier, a far larger proportion rise to social position, and far fewer become wrecks hereafter. But the point I wish to impress upon the burdened rate-payers of England is that our system rescues the child for a cost of £15 per head, whereas the cost of the workhouse child averages £100 per head. Were these 82,000 children emigrated on the principle we adopt, it would save the community over a million sterling a year, besides doubling the child's chances of success in life.

Any one who reads this letter thus far will marvel what fog has clouded the eyes of our officials to this splendid opening. It is a fact that for many years the Local Government Board has put such obstacles in the way of emigrating these children that hardly any thing has been accomplished. It seems that only seventy-four of this class of children were sent out last year, and now a prohibition is issued against any more emigration. The reason for this is that the Canadian government will

not carry out a complete inspection of these children. The Local Government Board will not accept the inspection we apply to the children sent through the various benevolent societies I have mentioned, though the Canadian government is perfectly satisfied with it, and all our emigration homes have tested it most thoroughly for many years, yet they forbid guardians to emigrate their children even when they also are perfectly satisfied with the inspection. Was there ever a more perfect example of Dickens' red-tape officialism?

I entirely agree that inspection is necessary. I would never consent to any or every body being permitted to take children out of this country without let or hindrance, but I hold that the philanthropic agencies, approved both by the Canadian government and our own, and whose action is well tested and known, should be allowed to take away as many of these poor children as they are able to do, and that a moderate grant should be made, not exceeding £15 per child; I say £15, for in most cases some preliminary training would be required on this side before going to Canada. The farmers there will not take workhouse children; experience teaches that many of these children have habits that unfit them for living in a good home; the absolute pre-requisite to success is a good and kind, motherly training in a small home, such as we give to all the children we send out.

I believe that the great bulk of the 82,000 children I have referred to could be made fit for emigration if trained for some time, as our children and those of Miss Macpherson, Dr. Barnardo, and others are trained. This preliminary training is the indispensable condition of the scheme working successfully, and a reasonable grant should be made for it, as well as for the actual cost of emigration.

I would recommend that the Local Government Board should hold a friendly conference with the heads of the emigration agencies, and try to devise some working scheme that will be free from danger of abuse, but not so strait-laced as to close the door of emigration to the great army of state-supported children.

I would only remark, in conclusion, that the 82,000 children I have named are but the vanguard of a far larger host. There are the inmates of similar institutions in Scotland and Ireland, and the far larger number of children receiving out-door relief, whose numbers in England and Wales exceed 200,000. It is probable that, in one shape or another, the state is responsible, in whole or in part, for over 300,000 children; and there are, besides, countless private institutions, such as orphanages, boys' and girls' homes, etc., supported by charity. Probably another 100,000 children are kept in them at the voluntary expense of the community. This would make 400,000 children, a large proportion of them orphans, supported by the community either voluntarily or compulsorily. Probably the entire cost would not be less than four or five millions a year.

Just conceive what a field for emigration is thus opened up were a wise system of machinery adopted, and what unspeakable relief it would be to our overcrowded labor market, were this stream that pours into our large cities turned into the thinly-peopled colonies, whose population is only one or two to the square mile, instead of being, as in England, 450 to the square mile! Were any statesman to make this a great national question and carry it to a successful solution, he would win well-earned fame and prove one of the greatest benefactors to the British people.

I apologize for the length of this communication, and beg to remain

Your obedient servant,

Liverpool.

SAMUEL SMITH.

THE OVERGROWTH OF INSTITUTIONS.

Nearly twenty years spent in official observation of the methods and results of private and public charitable work in the United States have made one deep impression upon us, if not more. We believe that a marked tendency of the entire system is to undue expansion. All that is implied in this conclusion cannot be elaborated in an article short enough to be read. We single out, therefore, one point and confine our attention for the moment to that. We have too many overgrown institutions; their number is increasing every year; and the limit of growth does not appear likely soon to be reached.

As a text for what we have to say on this subject, we quote the following language (which has to our ears a strangely familiar sound), from the last annual report of the trustees of the State Hospital for the Insane for the South-eastern District of Pennsylvania, at Norristown:

The problem narrows itself to the ways and means of providing for the 700 insane now in the district, and a prospective increase of 60 per annum, who are certain to find their way eventually into State hospitals. After mature reflection, the trustees are of the opinion that the best, the cheapest, and the speediest way to provide for these unfortunate wards of society, for many years to come, is to lay out on the grounds of the hospital another system of dormitory buildings, with centre building, kitchen, and boiler-house, similar in general plan to those now here, to hold 1,000 patients. The reasons in favor of this plan, on the score of economy, expediency, and efficiency, appear to the trustees to be unanswerable and conclusive. The ground, the organization, and the experience are here already. A year or more would probably be spent in the

selection of another site, and the cost of grounds and buildings anywhere else would be twice as much or more than twice as much as the cost of the same accommodations on the present grounds. Here, only centre and ward buildings are needed, the administration building, stable, lodge, etc., being sufficient; on a new site a complete system must be erected. Here the present organization and staff, with but little additional subordinate labor, outside of attendants, would readily take charge of the new system; elsewhere, a complete organization from the highest to the lowest would add very largely to the relative running expenses. The farm land now owned by the Norristown Hospital will be sufficient for such a population, and no other site offers the same facilities for extension at any thing like the same figures. Finally, on a new site all improvements must be slowly and laboriously built up; here, it is simply the extension of an established system, with the immediate advantage of the results of six years' labor and experience. It cannot be doubted that what would cost \$1,000,000 or more, in some other place, can be done here for \$400,000. With this sum a system of buildings, on the dormitory plan, for the habitation of 1,000 chronic insane, can be put up; the original buildings and infirmaries being reserved for those who require hospital treatment, the violent, and the infirm. The cost would be only \$400 per bed, just one half of the cost per bed of the original buildings. The practical capacity of the institution would then be about 2,500; and the total cost of grounds and buildings, including all the improvements thereto, will be, on an average, not much, if any, over \$500 a bed—an original cost unprecedented, we believe, in the history of eleemosynary institutions.

The prospect of such a result is an attractive one. All the enlargements of existing institutions have been effected under the pressure of precisely similar arguments. But we venture the assertion that, in an overwhelming majority of instances, the hopes held out to legislatures have in the end proved illusory, and the sanguine predictions made at the outset have been contradicted by the logic of events.

Let us for a moment consider the situation, without prejudice or partiality. Why should what can be done in one place for \$400,000 cost elsewhere \$1,000,000? And is it true that, for the accommodation of one thousand patients, only centre and ward buildings are needed?

In the original plan for an institution of any kind, the first thing which the architect requires to know, is how many inmates are to be provided for. So many insane patients will need so much space for sleeping apartments and so much for day-rooms. Very good. That determines approximately the amount of floor space and cubic space to be allowed for wards. It is proposed to classify them in so many groups, of so many patients each, and it is thought not to be desirable to have any ward building more than so many stories in height. That practically decides the shape and size of the ward buildings. The number of persons named, with their care-takers, including not only attendants, but other employés and officers, will consume so much food per day; to prepare that amount for cooking, and to cook it properly, necessitates a kitchen and bakery of certain dimensions. The number of pieces to be laundried each week depends, in like manner, on the number to be washed for, which again fixes the size of the laundry. The number of employés of all grades will be in the proportion of, say, one employé to every five patients; so the number of employés to be provided for is easily ascertained. To seat all these persons at table at meals will require a given amount of space for dining-rooms. The organization of a hospital for the insane follows certain well-established rules, and the size of the administration building will correspond to the number of officers and the quantity of office-work to be done in it. The number of patients who can be employed in useful labor of some sort in shops will bear some probable ratio to the whole number. The sum invested in buildings of all descriptions will show about how much space to assign to shops for mill-work in wood and iron, to enable the institution to do its own repairing and possibly more or less of its own furnishing and fitting. Then comes the question of heating, ventilating, lighting, and water supply for all these buildings, not to speak of sewerage and fire protection. The whole problem is one problem—a problem of mathematics, of quantities—and the answer to every question involved in it, from beginning to end, bears a fixed relation to the central and fundamental fact of the proposed

total capacity of the institution. Even the laying out of the grounds, the acreage of the farm, the number of live-stock, and the barn and stable-room needed to house the stock and the crops, is governed by the same constant factor. So many patients, so much milk to each patient, so many cows, so many acres of pasturage and meadow, so much food, so much waste, so many pigs to consume this waste; there you have the size of your piggery. And so with every detail, great or small, not forgetting the chapel, the ball-room, the library, and the amusement hall.

Now change the capacity of the institution, and in an instant these proportions are destroyed. What was a constant factor has become a variable factor. An alteration here means an alteration there, and that means alteration everywhere: tearing down, rebuilding, remodelling, on a grand scale. Not all at once, but by degrees. But it generally happens that, when all the necessary changes have been effected, the final expense is as great as that of a new institution—often greater—and the result is not nearly so satisfactory.

We therefore read with a sceptical eye the declaration that the farm-land now owned by the hospital will be sufficient for nearly double the present population; and that the present administration building, etc., will suffice to meet the increased demands upon it.

But, after all, this is not the point of primary importance. Financial considerations, in the administration of charitable and penal institutions, are purely secondary. The main thing is the welfare of the inmates, the accomplishment of the purpose in view in the creation of the institution.

It is easily demonstrable that no class of unfortunates can receive the same individual care and attention in an overgrown establishment as in one of moderate size. The executive administration, to be thoroughly efficient, should be in the hands of one man. No man can successfully handle the affairs of a concern too large for his capacity. The larger the establishment, the less he can know of details, and the more he must confide to the discretion of subordinates. The duties of a superintendent are of the most varied character; it is impossible that he should be thoroughly versed in all of them. There is a certain percentage of failure in the best-managed institution. The larger it is, the more conspicuous its deficiencies become, and the more likely there is to be complaint, dissatisfaction, and even possible scandal, as a consequence. The dependence of the superintendent is on "classification," which is another word for routine treatment, the bane of all large establishments. The difficulties of government of employes are augmented; the danger of friction between them and between the heads of departments is increased; and the superintendent tends to become merely a sovereign, in whose name government is actually administered by subordinate chiefs. The personal responsibility, which is so desirable in a superintendent, is weakened. His indirect responsibility is of course greater, and his salary must be correspondingly raised. But the State receives no additional service for this additional outlay. He gave all his time, and all his energies of mind and body, before; he can give no more. What brain-power and force of will he possesses is distributed over a larger area, so that individuals feel it less. How is it possible for any man, however capable, to know the personal history, the physical and mental condition and necessities, of 1,500 insane patients or 1,500 prisoners in a penitentiary? He can not, with all his other work, know them by name or even by sight. How much less can he know 2,500 inmates. If a superintendent could in fact be found equal to such a trust, what assurance can the State have that his successor in office will possess like talents and similar vigor? With such a charge, a conscientious superintendent is of necessity overworked. Overwork is followed by exhaustion and irritability, impatience, instability of purpose, unevenness of temper, and all the train of evils which these qualities in the head of an institution imply and superinduce.

It is the perception of these antecedent probabilities which led the Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane to include, among their "propositions" (which have never been repealed or amended), the following: "The highest number that can, with propriety, be treated in one building, is 250, while 200 is a preferable maximum." It is true that the Association has since said that the erection of a building with a capacity of 600 patients, *though not desirable, may be tolerated* as a necessity, under the pressure for additional provision for the insane. But the Norristown Hospital is already twice and a half as large as is even tolerable by the Association, (if any weight or significance whatever is to be given to its latest deliverance on the subject). There are not more than a dozen institutions for the insane in this country, which have over 1,000 patients; not even that at Willard has 2,000. Where, then, is the limit of growth to be placed?

It is our opinion that, as there has been a reaction against the retention of the insane in county or town almshouses, and a reaction against extravagance in the construction of hospitals for the insane, so now there needs to be a reaction against the erection of any more of these mammoth establishments. Build more institutions, of smaller capacity, nearer to the homes of the patients' friends or relatives. Otherwise, it will not be many years until the condition of the insane in hospitals will be really less comfortable, on the whole, than it was or would have been, in the almshouses from which they have been in great part rescued.

A DEAF-MUTE IDIO-IMBECILE.

One of the most interesting cases I have had is that of a deaf-mute of feeble intellect.

She is a German Jewess of ten years. When six weeks old she had brain fever and paralysis of the left side. She did not walk till she was five years old, and then not alone. It is thought that she heard before her illness.

She has lived with me since September, 1883. A celebrated physician said that she was not an idiot; she had mind, which could be developed. She was refused at an institution for deaf-mutes and referred to me.

Her mind was such a complete blank, that it was hard to decide where and how to go to work. She had no signs, and could not express herself in any way. She made a very disagreeable noise, which made the others so nervous that we were obliged to keep her by herself until she learned that it could and must be stopped. She is a pretty child, with olive complexion, black hair and eyes, and regular features, but so helpless. She could not do one thing to entertain herself except to bite her finger and toe nails. A picture meant nothing to her. For weeks I would show her every day large, clear pictures of such common forms as teakettles, chairs, knives, forks, spoons, and the like, showing alternately the picture and the thing itself; and yet, after three months of this drill, she would give me a spoon if I pointed to a picture of a coffee-mill; but we persevered, and now she loves pictures, and sees all there is to be seen, even in obscure representations.

She has a hasty temper, but is learning to control it. She is very defiant, and at times malicious. She will obey, but not to the letter. She had been with me to buy some fruit. We carried it home in a paper bag. After putting the fruit in a dish we went into the kitchen, and I laid the bag on the table. Mary seized it and threw it on the floor. Had she not looked at me in such a defiant way I would have passed it by unnoticed. I did not make any sign to her, but simply looked at the bag. She went off into the dining-room with an air that said: You may stay there and look at that bag if you want to—but I am going up stairs. But she could not get far away. She put the butler's pantry between us and looked at me for three minutes, while I looked at the bag. Then she came out, and after spending three or four minutes arranging a handkerchief around her head, she stooped down, took the bag, and returned it to the table. This is the most studied thing she ever did.

She was three months learning to use the toy knitter, commonly known as cork and pins, working every day, with a teacher beside her, for half an hour. After she could work at that alone she was taught to use a crochet needle. Practising from a quarter to half an hour every day, she was from the middle of February to the middle of July, 1884, learning the simple chain stitch. Her difficulty was putting the worsted around her fingers; she could keep it in place and take the stitch if some one would arrange the worsted. To convince her mother that her slowness was not due to her want of hearing, I borrowed a child of average intelligence, three years younger than Mary, and who had not seen any fancy-work at home. I doubt if she had ever seen a crochet needle. Without a word as to what she was to do, I motioned her to a seat, put

my fingers to my lips, looked at the clock, made several stitches for her, put it into her hands, and in five minutes she could do it alone.

Mary has learned color and form. She comprehends number to seven, and matches dominos and cards. She has learned to dress herself and keep her things in order. She had three lessons of twenty minutes each in articulation. She can give the name sound of A, E, and O. She can give all of the lip consonants, and G, N, S, H, TH, and SH. The year before she learned to make some of these sounds, but they did not convey any meaning to her, so that I may say that she has learned these sounds thoroughly in ten months. If I write the letter she will give the sound; or if I make the sound she will read it from my lips and make the letter. Besides this, she has combined the sounds in the following words, and speaks them so that any one can understand what she says: Ma, Pa, no, home, sew, bow, and shoe. She knows these words so thoroughly that I do not think of signing when I want to use them.

A year later, 1885.—Mary is now eleven and a half years old. I left her in 1884, happy in having learned to crochet a simple chain, after working at it for five months, twenty minutes a day. Since that time she has learned to make different stitches. I send a tidy just finished. The green stripes she did alone out of school hours. The blue border she did all herself, but with a teacher by her, which gives her confidence in herself. She lacks continuity. If she had not been watched she would have signed that she could not do it. She knits wash-rags by herself, and outlines with her needle, but it takes her a long time, as her hands are so unsteady from paralysis.

An hour's lesson in articulation, five days in each week, for forty weeks, resulted in her learning ten new words, and prevented her forgetting seven learned the preceding year. She has learned to modulate her voice fairly well, and a stranger would understand her.

Her parents are satisfied, so we continue. They do not want her to learn the manual alphabet, because it would stamp her as a deaf-mute, and they would not understand her at home. To comply with this wish I conceived to be so dwarfing to the child's mind, by depriving her of the natural means of communication, that I determined to teach her the manual alphabet as an experiment. Out of school hours I taught her, at odd minutes, six words in six weeks. The experiment proved a success; she had never learned any thing so quickly. I shall wait till the parents co-operate with me in teaching her by whatever means will give the best results.

She has now been under my training for three years. She is taken annually to a private school for deaf-mutes, but refused admission, being feeble-minded, which it is not difficult to discover. Should she continue to improve as in the past year, she may be admitted, but she will not be taught articulation—there will not be time. Think of working all through the year, a few minutes each day, to get the sound of K. She had learned the sound of G after long struggles, but could not maintain the position and make breath instead of voice, even though I held her tongue in position with a little ivory manipulator, and showed her that she must breathe on her hand as I did. At the end of the year she grasped the idea, and there was great rejoicing.

Like all deaf-mutes, she is sensitive to a jar. No matter how slight, she feels it and shows that it hurts her all over. Unlike normal deaf-mutes, she is not sensitive to physical pain. She will ask to have her teeth drawn just for the pleasant sensation it gives her. When necessary to have them extracted she will laugh and kiss her hand to the dentist (sign for thank you), but her chief delight is a hive or mosquito bite that she can keep sore. She will not allow the nails to grow on her fingers or toes. She has no difficulty in getting her toe to her mouth—an indulgence which she enjoys after going to bed.

SOCIAL PURITY WORK OF THE NATIONAL WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION FOR 1887.

By FRANCIS E. WILLARD, PRESIDENT.

One year has taught us much. "What not to do?" is often a query more difficult than "What to do?" Last year our eyes were always looking over our shoulders to see "the way they worked in England." This was natural enough, because the mother country had pioneered the path, was several years earlier in the field, and had developed something in the line of methods.

Last year we studied the wonderful uprising that resulted in the Criminal Amendment Bill—a measure which Parliament had toyed with for nine sessions, and only adopted at the point of that sharpest of bayonets—aroused and concentrated public opinion. Last year we rejoiced over the expurgation from Great Britain's legislative records of those barbarous "Contagious Diseases Acts," the repeal of which was said by the *London Times* to be the greatest personal triumph ever won by a woman, and that woman Mrs. Josephine Butler, the first of her sex who ever publicly

raised up a standard against the legalized degradation of the world's gentler half.

Last year we studied the wonderful White Cross movement under the wise and thoughtful guidance of Miss Ellice Hopkins, of Brighton, England, and the Rev. Dr. B. F. DeCosta, of New York, through whose efforts the movement has now been endorsed by the Episcopal Church, at its triennial session, Chicago, and broadened by the seven methods of an official "Declaration" until it is better adapted to the spirit of our people.

All this was noble tutelage, and, though possibly we could have done some things better than we did, we nevertheless made a beginning, and "it is the first step that costs."

Nearly every State in the Union appointed a superintendent of work for the promotion of social purity, and thousands of local unions began the study of arguments and methods. Sixty thousand of Miss Hopkins' White Cross Leaflets were ordered from our National Headquarters, 161 La Salle St., Chicago, and thirty-three thousand White Cross pledges. Letters by the basketful were received and answered, and documents relative to the work sent out, not only through the United States, but the civilized world, for this great awakening seems like a wave of spiritual power belting the earth.

But 1887 is here, and what are now our plans? They involve some features that are new. As before, we group the work under three heads: Preventive, Reformatory, and Legislative.

WHITE CROSS.

Under the first our efforts will be chiefly to carry out the plans of the White Cross Societies. These are given at length in the "White Cross Manual" which I have just prepared, and which is for sale at our Headquarters, 161 La Salle St., Chicago. The White Cross Society is formed of men alone, no woman or girl ever having been made a member. It is not a secret society, but is very simply organized and has no admission fee. Each member takes the following five-fold obligation:

I, —————, *promise by the help of God:*

1. To treat all women with respect, and endeavor to protect them from wrong and degradation.
2. To endeavor to put down all indecent language and coarse jests.
3. To maintain the law of purity as equally binding upon men as women.
4. To endeavor to spread these principles among my companions, and to try and help my younger brothers.
5. To use every possible means to fulfil the command, "Keep thyself pure."

Leaflets, the object of which is to impress the reasonableness and sacredness of these promises, are circulated among the members, and occasional sermons and addresses given under the auspices of the White Cross Society, which constantly seeks to recruit new members and to spread its blessed propaganda. Definiteness of purpose, based upon intelligent and educated choice, added to the inspiration of *esprit du corps*, are the results secured by these simple methods for enlisting and enrolling our young men. Good men sign for good example's sake, just as we all take the pledge of total abstinence from intoxicating drinks. But be it carefully noted that the White Cross pledge can be grafted upon existing societies of approved character.

A teacher may give this pledge to the male members of his class, whether in Sabbath-school, high-school, or college. A pastor may hold a meeting for the purpose, and recommend the pledge to the young men of his church and congregation. A temperance society of men (or the men in a mixed temperance society), or a Knights-of-Labor lodge can have its "inner circle" where this pledge is taken and its accompanying literature read and distributed. But these members must not be under sixteen years of age.

THE SILVER CROSS

was organized last year (1886) by Bishop Huntington, and the following pledge, prepared by Dr. DeCosta, has been

adopted as the pledge of this new society, whose members are known as "Knights of the Silver Cross."

The pledge is as follows.

"He shall sit as a refiner and purifier of silver."—MAL. iii. 3.

"Silver tried in a furnace of earth, purified seven times."—Ps. xii. 6.

I, ———, promise by the help of God:

1. To treat all women with courtesy and respect, and to be specially kind to those persons who are poorer and weaker or younger than myself.
2. To be modest in word and deed, and to discourage profane and impure language; never doing or saying any thing I should be unwilling to have known by my father or mother.
3. To avoid all conversation, reading, art, and amusements which may put impure thoughts into my mind.
4. To guard the purity of others, especially of companions and friends, and to avoid speaking or thinking evil.
5. "To keep my body in temperance, soberness, and chastity."

This is for boys, and, like the White Cross, is *not* a secret society.

WHITE SHIELD.

The name chosen for the women's pledge is the White Shield, and the following pledge was agreed upon by our Minneapolis Convention.

I, ———, promise by the help of God:

1. To uphold the law of purity as equally binding upon men and women.
2. To be modest in language, behavior, and dress.
3. To avoid all conversation, reading, art, and amusements which may put impure thoughts into my mind.
4. To guard the purity of others, especially of the young.
5. To strive after the special blessing promised to THE PURE IN HEART.

White Shield literature is being prepared, and will cover all the points enumerated in the pledge. (Send to Woman's Temperance Publication Association, 161 La Salle St., Chicago, for bulletin.) It is earnestly hoped that all members of the W. C. T. U. will take this pledge as an example to our younger sisters, and that mothers will carefully train their daughters in its precepts and the reasons on which they are based; also that teachers in Sabbath-school and public school and college will do the same.

Quietly and with prayerful wisdom this work should go forward, basing all its motives upon the gospel of a pure temple in which the soul may work out its God-given destiny on earth, and carefully avoiding any approach to such recitals as will either develop a morbid appetite for more, or induce a nervous excitability and fanatical conscientiousness equally to be deplored.

Under wise and conservative management the White Shield may be a mighty power for the protection of young women, and to this end let the work be entered upon with a prayerful solemnity commensurate with the delicacy and importance of the undertaking. This line of effort does not contemplate the forming of separate societies, but only the "inner circles" of women as described for men under the head of the White Cross.

MOTHERS' MEETINGS.

This sub-division of the General Department is under the special care of Mrs. Dr. J. H. Kellogg, Battle Creek, Mich., who will send her list of topics on application. We are preparing a series of leaflets to go with this list, and intended for reading, and as a basis of discussion at the meetings. Here the White Shield Pledge should be circulated with its accompanying literature, now being prepared.

The *Silver Cross* (for boys) should be under the special fostering care of the Mothers' Meeting, a committee of the best, most wise, and motherly-hearted women being chosen to superintend the circulation of these pledges. And let it be remembered that the woman's pledge does not involve the formation of a society. That of the boys *may*, but the two sexes should *never* be addressed in the same audience, and it is better to have *no public meetings* connected with the work among women. Quietly circulate among them the pledge and the literature, delicately and carefully written, that accompanies it.

DAUGHTERS OF THE TEMPLE.

Dr. DeCosta has, also, with the advice and coöperation of this Department, drawn up a card entitled "Daughters of the Temple," containing, like the other cards, a five-fold pledge. The cards for boys and girls may be used at such an age as parents deem best, but at sixteen the juniors may be advanced to the higher department. The Silver Cross is regarded as auxiliary to the White Cross, which now may be regarded as containing three degrees, the third being entered upon at eighteen. Societies of the "Silver Cross" may be formed when desirable under the leadership of clergymen or Christian men of experience, *but no society of girls is contemplated*. They take from mother or teacher the following pledge:

That our daughters may be as the polished corners of the temple.—Ps. CXLIV. 12.

Ye also, as lively stones, are built up a spiritual house.—I PETER II. 5.

I, ———, Promise by the help of God:

1. To reverence all sacred things, and to be modest in language, behavior, and dress.
2. To repress all thoughts, words, and deeds which I should feel ashamed to have my parents know.
3. To avoid all conversation, reading, art, and amusements which may put impure thoughts into my mind.
4. To guard the purity and good name of others, especially of my companions and friends; never needlessly speaking evil of any, especially when they are absent.
5. To strive after the special blessing promised to THE PURE IN HEART.

REFORMATORY WORK.

This is to be carried on by the establishing of cheap reading-rooms and lodging-houses for women in large cities and towns, with notices posted up in "depot waiting-rooms," advertising the same to the stranger and the friendless; industrial homes, to be founded by the State as a sequel to petitions circulated by our societies; and a "life-saving station" (W. C. T. U. Committee of two) in every local Union, to inaugurate and carry out all reformatory work. In every community there are women especially interested in this department of Christian endeavor, who can be induced to act on this committee. Evangelistic work should accompany all these efforts. Visits to degraded women and prayer with and for them should be constantly made, and efforts to win them to a true life should be accompanied by practical attempts to find them honorable employment or return them to their homes. Dr. Kate Bushnell, Evanston, Ill., National Evangelist of this Department, will, upon request, send her circulars with further details.

LEGAL WORK.

The following petition is now in circulation in nearly every State except Massachusetts and Colorado, which have already, in response to petitions of the W. C. T. U., raised the age of consent to eighteen years. Wisconsin also has laws which largely anticipate the legislation herein asked for:

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

The increasing and alarming frequency of assaults upon women, and the frightful indignities to which even little girls are subject, have become the shame of our boasted civilization.

A study of the statutes has revealed their utter failure to meet the demands of that newly awakened public sentiment which requires better legal protection for womanhood and girlhood.

Therefore we, women of ———, State of ———, do most earnestly appeal to you to enact such statutes as shall provide for the adequate punishment of crimes against women and girls. We also urge that the age at which a girl becomes legally responsible for her own ruin be raised to at least eighteen years; and we call attention to the disgraceful fact that protection of the person is not placed by our laws upon so high a plane as protection of the purse.

Names.

Residences.

The United States Congress will be appealed to by similar petitions at the present session.

A bill is to be presented, which has been prepared with the advice of the best legal minds and of thoughtful men and women well qualified to deal with the subject. This bill has been sent to every State and Territory except those

already mentioned as having already passed laws of the most encouraging character.

The term "age of consent" has been much objected to by white-ribbon women, and it is suggested, after taking legal advice, that "age of protection" may be used instead.

Some have preferred to call this the "Department of *Gospel Purity*," and surely the name has great significance. The good news of purity, according to Gospel (*i. e.*, *New Testament*) standards, is what we would help to scatter abroad. Christ's "Neither do I condemn thee, go and sin no more," proclaimed along with his "Let him who is without sin among you cast the first stone at her," are the firm basis of that *equal chastity* which Christianity equally requires of man and woman.

It must be clearly kept in mind that the work we are doing is part and parcel of the temperance movement. Intemperance and impurity are the Siamese twins of degradation, whose father is the saloon, and whose mother the house of shame. We shall never banish either until we equally undermine both. Every brothel is a secret saloon, and every saloon is in league with the strange woman. The effects of *alcoholic* stimulants, especially wine and beer, as well as tobacco, upon the tendencies toward an impure life, are direct and terrible.

The last strongholds of the liquor traffic will be the haunts of infamy. Here, then, is our work, plainly set before us by the nature of the case no less than by failures in the past, the demands of the present, and the inspirations of the beckoning future. Grateful for the remarkable successes of the year just closed, encouraged by the prompt and loving responses to our appeals for help in this department, so new and so untried, and exalted by the faith that we are co-workers with God for man's redemption from the bondage in which he groans, being burdened, we go forth to meet the future, full of joyful expectation that, as always, we shall find our work grows "better farther on."

Evanston, Illinois, December 22d.

OUR QUESTION-BOX.

What is the criminal population of the civilized world at present?

We cannot answer this inquiry. But it is to be observed that criminals who are, at any one time, in prison, form but a small part of the great army of those who are engaged in the war upon property. Many criminals never see the inside of a prison. Some writers have estimated that the actual prison population does not include more than one fifth of all who live, wholly or in part, off the profits of crime.

What per cent. of the criminal classes in the United States are foreigners?

According to the tenth census there were, on the first day of June, 1880, in prison, 30,623 persons, convicted of crime or awaiting trial, of whom 24,731 were native-born and 5,892 were foreign-born. How many of the native-born were of foreign parentage is not stated. Of the native-born population of this country, 1 in 1,758 were in prison; of the foreign-born population, 1 in 1,134.

What, in your judgment, are the five greatest causes of crime?

So many factors enter into this problem that any answer to the question must be incomplete and unsatisfactory.

The causes of all social evils lie in (1) physical conditions, (2) imperfect intellectual development, and (3) moral perversion.

Or they may be classed as (1) individual and (2) social.

In order to define with precision one's position with reference to the etiology of crime, one must first take position on the preliminary scientific or metaphysical questions which follow, and which are fundamental. What is the comparative influence of the body over the mind, and of the mind over the body? What is mind? is it, or is it not, a separate entity? Assuming that man is more than an animal,

what is the constitution of his nature? shall we accept the "dichotomy" or the "trichotomy" theory? What is the relation of the human will to external circumstances? which is paramount? The subject is most abstruse. No agreement regarding it is to be expected. The very terms employed—crime, responsibility, punishment, penalty—have not the same meaning in the mouths of the various parties to this great controversy.

But, superficially speaking, from a practical rather than a theoretical point of view, certain causes of crime in this country are obvious.

(1) Human depravity, or the preference of the lower to the higher good.

(2) Ignorance of the relations and obligations of individuals to other men or to the public, whether such ignorance be the result of want of instruction, attention, or natural capacity. Ignorance, in the popular sense, is only an indirect cause of crime, and education only an indirect prevention of it. Purely literary, scientific, or intellectual culture renders possible and develops certain crimes unknown to uneducated communities.

(3) Our democratic institutions, which stimulate individual ambition to the utmost, intensify the energy of the struggle for supremacy, lead to an over-estimate of the real value and utility of wealth, and concentrate the attention of men upon business and politics, to the exclusion of loftier themes and pursuits.

(4) The changes in methods of transacting business, due to the sudden and enormous development of machinery and its substitution for human brain and muscle, joined to the growth of mammoth corporations and the enormous aggregation of capital in their hands.

(5) The materialistic tendency of modern thought, consequent upon the brilliant scientific discoveries and inventions of the past half century, which have had an intoxicating influence upon the human intellect.

(6) The weakening of the marriage relation and its replacement to a certain extent by other forms of sexual activity, and the reluctance of men and women who are married to fulfil the duties of marriage.

(7) Intemperance; though the amount of crime directly traceable to excessive indulgence in the use of ardent spirits is far less than is commonly supposed.

(8) The one-sided training given in our public schools. For exclusive attention is paid to the intellectual development of pupils; too little to practical morality and to physical training. The want of a trade is a common cause of crime.

The alliance between crime, insanity, idiocy, and pauperism, is so close and vital, that they may almost be said to be four allotropic manifestations of one and the same social malady. Their effects are similar, their causes largely identical, and the treatment to be accorded to their victims is not unlike. They are forms of mental or moral aberration, originating in, or at least strongly tending in the direction of, mental or moral imbecility, or both.

What disposition should be made of insane convicts? That is, of those who become insane in prison. Do you think that they can receive suitable or adequate treatment within prison walls? What is the general practice in such cases?

The usual practice is to remove the prisoner to a hospital or asylum for the insane. Arkansas is, so far as we know, the only State in which the law directs that "no prisoner having become insane during any term of service or confinement in any penal institution on account of crime of which he or she may have been convicted, shall be admitted into the State lunatic asylum during such term of service or confinement, but shall be treated for that disease inside of the walls of the penitentiary." The law requiring the removal of the prisoner is, in most States, mandatory; in a few of them it is simply permissive. Nearly all of the States have covered this point in their statutes relating to lunacy. The

reason for this substantial unanimity is the prevalence of the conviction that insane prisoners *cannot* "receive suitable or adequate treatment within prison walls." At the same time it must be said that the medical superintendents of hospitals for the insane bitterly oppose the association of insane convicts with the non-criminal insane, on grounds which commend themselves to common-sense and good feeling. The proper disposition to be made of them is to provide a separate institution for insane convicts and the criminal insane. [Note that there is a distinction between the two groups named, but that both classes may be cared for in one and the same establishment.] Since the number of insane included under these two descriptions is in most States too small to admit of a distinct asylum for the criminal insane, it is proper to build it either on the grounds of a prison or of an insane hospital, but separated from the portions of the institution occupied by other criminals or other lunatics, as the case may be. Which of these two plans is preferable, is a disputed question. The officers of hospitals want it to be within the prison enclosure, and the officers of prisons want it to be on the grounds of a hospital. Good reasons are advanced for both opinions. Our own inclination is to connect it with a hospital rather than a prison, because prison physicians are not, as a rule, expert in the treatment of insanity, and because the criminal insane who are not convicts cannot well be committed to a prison asylum. But, on the other hand, insane convicts (who are always suspected in the early stages of their disease of malingering) are more likely to receive the early treatment which is so essential to their recovery if the asylum created for their benefit is connected with the prison.

SMALL ASYLUMS FOR THE CHRONIC INSANE.

THEIR CONSTRUCTION AND MANAGEMENT.

By A. O. WRIGHT.

The following paper, read, at the National Conference of Charities, by the secretary of the Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform, is worthy of attention, since it embodies the views and experience of that board in the management of county insane asylums, on the Wisconsin plan.

The following is the result of five years' actual experiment, in Wisconsin, with county asylums managed by local authorities under close State supervision. Every thing here recommended is in actual practice somewhere, and most of the recommendations are followed in all the Wisconsin county asylums for the chronic insane. They are perfectly feasible anywhere, in hands of officers who believe in the virtues of non-restraint, occupation, and moral treatment for the chronic insane.

I. Buildings.

The proper size should be for not less than fifty nor more than a hundred inmates. An institution for a smaller number than fifty costs too much for construction and for salaries, in proportion to the number of inmates. It cannot afford to employ more than one attendant for each sex, which is often inconvenient. A larger number than a hundred is unwieldy, and puts the superintendent too far from the inmates. If there is a larger number to be provided for, separate institutions should be built.

The buildings should be of solid brick, with an air-space in the walls, to prevent dampness. All interior walls should be of brick. All doors between separate parts of the building should be of metal, or metal-covered. All plastering should be directly on the wall. The roof should be of slate. The floors should all be deadened, and laid with hard wood. The basement floor should be cemented, or made of concrete. The basement should not be used for the storage of vegetables, for laundry, or for living-rooms.

The building should be two stories high. The height of the stories need not be more than ten feet. There should be stairways enough to provide two ways of egress from each part of the building. All stairways should be iron and should be wide, with broad, low steps, and hand-rails. All outside doors should open outward.

The heating should not be by means of stoves. Steam-heating is in some respects preferable to hot-air furnaces, if proper ventilation goes with it. Particular attention should be paid to the heating and ventilation, and some one of the several good plans for these should be adopted. Some system of water-supply is also needed, for daily use and for fire-protection. A hose should be kept in each hall, ready to throw water on turning a stopcock. These should be so placed, that any part of the

building can be reached with water within one minute after an alarm of fire is given; to prevent meddling with it at other times, the hose should be placed in a small closet, locked, and the keys be held by officers and attendants only.

There should be no bars upon the windows but iron sashes, painted white. Every effort should be made to banish all suggestions of a prison character.

The use of water-closets in the building is of doubtful wisdom, as they are so liable to emit sewer-gas. It seems to be better to use two-story earth-closets, connected with the building by light, open corridors.

The arrangement of the rooms may be upon either of several different plans. In any plan, the single bedrooms should be few in number, and there should be ample and sunny sitting-rooms, convenient dining-rooms, and an assembly-room and work-room. About four fifths of the inmates can occupy associate dormitories. These dormitories should have about forty square feet of floor-space for each inmate, arranged so as to be laid off in spaces five by eight feet. Rooms sixteen feet wide and twenty, twenty-five, and thirty feet long will accommodate eight, ten, and twelve beds each. The sitting-rooms should have a floor-space of thirty square feet for each inmate. But if the halls are to be used as the only sitting-rooms, the spaces should be more than this. Bay-windows add greatly to the cheerfulness of the sitting-rooms. Dining-rooms should have a floor-space of about fifteen square feet for each inmate. As there is no necessity for separating the sexes at meals, one large dining-room, which can be used also as an assembly-room, is best.

A hospital-room should be provided for each sex, large, sunny, and well-ventilated.

Rooms for attendants, bath-rooms and clothes-rooms should be provided in each ward. There should also be two hospital-rooms, away from the wards, for the sick, or those who need rest and quiet on account of nervous weakness. There should be provided, for the superintendent and his family, rooms of moderate size, sufficient for their private use, and for keeping guests over night, as well as an office.

Whether the cottage plan or the congregate plan should be followed, is of less consequence than that the buildings should be well-constructed and convenient. The cottage plan, however, has several advantages that recommend it over the congregate plan.

All buildings should be so placed and planned, as to admit sunlight freely. Every room should have the sunshine at some hour of the day.

II. Land.

A large farm is needed, both for economy in maintenance and to furnish occupation for the men. About four acres for each inmate is a fair allowance. All the land wanted should be procured at the beginning, because afterward purchases cost more, and they are not always possible at any price. The land should be fertile, and adapted to a variety of crops, as well as to cattle. If possible, there should also be a sufficiency of woodland, in addition to the farm proper, to furnish fuel for the institution, and winter employment for the men.

The location should be healthy and easy of access; not less than one mile nor more than three miles from the outer limits of a city or village having a railroad. Publicity is the best safeguard against abuse. The building site should be slightly elevated, to set off the buildings and to afford good drainage. Land should be left in front, and on the sides of the building, for a lawn and pleasure-ground, and the barns and pig-styes put at a considerable distance back.

Cattle should be kept, so as to provide one milch cow for from five to ten inmates. By soiling in summer, and ensilage in winter, a much larger number of cattle can be supported on the land than by pasturage and meadow-land. More labor will also be provided for the insane, and the value of the farm increased by manuring.

III. Officers, etc.

The institution should be governed by a board of trustees, appointed by the local authorities, who should make a full annual printed report, with a report from the superintendent and the visiting physician.

The trustees should appoint a superintendent and a visiting physician. The superintendent should appoint all other officers and employés, make all purchases, and keep all records and accounts, under general rules adopted by the trustees.

Great care should be taken to have the right man for superintendent, and the right woman as matron. No considerations of party, or sect, or nationality, or residence should be allowed to influence his appointment. He should be a man of energy, intelligence, business capacity, humanity, and power of governing men, and should have some knowledge of farming. His wife should be a good housekeeper, and a woman of like qualities with those named above. If, for any reason, she does not take an active part in the management of the asylum, then the superintendent should select some competent woman as matron.

Attendants should be employed, at the rate of about one for each twenty insane persons, who should be men and women of intelligence, energy, and tact. They should not be afraid of work nor anxious to display their authority. Either the matron or one of the female attendants should be a good dressmaker, and at least one of the attendants should be able to play on the cabinet-organ, or some other good musical instrument. The male attendants should be good farm-hands, able to lead the men in all kinds of farm-work.

A good cook should be employed. A man is often better than a woman for that place. The best facilities for cooking should be furnished.

The visiting physician should be the best physician near by. He should not merely treat cases of diseases, but should direct the sanitation of the household, and advise in regard to the treatment of each insane person.

IV. *Occupation and amusements.*

Occupation is nature's medicine. Idleness is not good for the insane, any more than for the sane. Occupation should be provided for all the insane possible, whether the occupation has a pecuniary value or not. The exceptions will be: those disabled by sickness or old age, the extremely demented, and those whose delusions are such as to forbid work. Tact and patience will secure some work from many even of these. Our experience in Wisconsin shows that over three fourths of the chronic insane can be furnished with occupation of some sort.

The following work can be expected of the chronic insane, under proper leadership: All the housework, including the washing, sewing, knitting, mending, and care of rooms; all the chores about the house and barn, all the cutting and piling of wood, all the farm-work, all the work in a large vegetable and small-fruit garden, all the grading around the buildings, and all the ditching, fencing, etc., on the farm. The difficulty will be, not to find people to do the work, but to provide work enough for the people to do, especially for the men in winter.

The secret of true economy is to purchase as little material and hire as little labor as possible. This is also the secret of providing healthful occupation for the insane. The mistake should not be made of purchasing ready-made clothing, stockings, bedding, etc., because they are cheap. It is better to purchase cloth and make it up. If wood can be bought at any reasonable rate, or better still, woodland, it should be used, instead of coal, for the sake of providing work for the men in winter. Do not provide machinery to take occupation out of the patients' hands.

Amusements should also be furnished, in the shape of indoor and outdoor games, music, dances, picnics, sleigh-rides, magic-lantern exhibitions, Christmas-trees, etc. Pains should be taken to induce the melancholy and the stupid to take an interest in these amusements. A cabinet-organ and a player for it should be provided as an unfailing source of entertainment. Stormy days and Sundays, when there is less occupation, the insane will be found most troublesome. Music will then be a great help.

Religious services should be held on Sunday, if arrangements can be made. The services should be adapted to comfort rather than terrify. Catholic inmates should be given the benefit of Catholic services, if possible.

Reading-matter, especially illustrated papers, should be furnished in abundance, but nothing heavy, sensational, or morbid.

A display of work done by inmates, at the local fair, with due credit given to individuals, is a good thing for the inmates, as well as a matter of public interest.

V. *Liberty.*

All the arrangements of the asylum should be for a home instead of a prison. The insane should be managed by having a sufficient number of attendants, by providing occupation, and by kindly treatment, so as to avoid the use of restraints if possible.

Restraints should only be used in extreme cases, and never without the knowledge and approval of the superintendent himself. A record should always be made of every case of restraint or seclusion, in a book kept for that purpose, giving date, name of person restrained or secluded, kind of restraint used, reasons for it, length of time employed, and effect on the insane person.

In many cases, seclusion—that is, shutting up in a locked room, warmed and lighted—is best. For this purpose it is well to have the windows of one room for each sex protected by a wire screen, and to have nothing movable in the room.

Mechanical restraint—that is, the use of strait-jackets, camisoles, leather muffs, leather mittens, crib-beds, strapping in chairs, etc.—should never be used, as a mere convenience, to make it easier for the attendants. Even to have this apparatus in the institution at all, is a constant temptation to misuse it, and a source of fear to the patients that it will be used. It is better not to have this apparatus at all; but, if any is kept in the asylum, it should be under the personal charge of the superintendent, and never be entrusted to attendants to use at their discretion.

Where an earnest effort is made to avoid the use of both seclusion and mechanical restraint, it is remarkable how little is used. In the county asylums of Wisconsin, the average is about one-tenth of one per cent.—that is, about one insane person in a thousand is in restraint or seclusion each day. It will be found that, the more occupation is provided, the less restraint is needed.

Chemical restraint, so called—that is, the use of opiates or other drugs, merely to keep troublesome patients quiet—should never be resorted to. Such drugs should only be used, under the direction of a physician, when absolutely necessary to procure sleep, prevent exhaustion, or relieve intense pain. They are then given as a medicine, and not for the purpose of restraint.

With the proper number of attendants, it is entirely feasible to dispense with locked doors, and to allow the inmates to go out and in, at their own pleasure, during the hours of daylight. The only precaution necessary, is to have plenty of occupation provided, and to require the attendants to know where every patient is, every half-hour, and to guard against indiscriminate meeting of the sexes.

Airing-courts, with high board-fences, are not necessary nor desirable, and are too suggestive of prison-pens, to be allowed. They encourage bad habits in patients, and neglect on the part of attendants. Ordinary fences, with watchfulness and kindness, are sufficient to prevent the most demented or unruly from starving.

Quite a number of the insane can be trusted to go away from the vicinity of the buildings, on parole, without an attendant. Many can be trained to do certain regular work, each day, without being told each day to do it. Some can be trusted to take care of other insane persons, and can be used to advantage in that way. Temporary leave of absence can be granted to some, to go home, when the conditions of the home and the patient are both favorable.

Almost complete freedom of correspondence should be allowed. The reasons for interfering with the correspondence of inmates should be very grave, to warrant such a step. As a rule, however, the letters of the insane should be read, before being sent.

Any reasonable amount of visits from relatives or acquaintances should be allowed, except in cases where such visits are an obvious and great injury to the insane person.

VI. *Moral treatment.*

This is difficult to define, but is one of the most important things in the care of the insane. Every thing depends upon the kindness, firmness, and tact of those in charge of the insane. Few general rules can be applied, but each case must be treated by itself. The essential thing is not to treat the insane in the mass, but to individualize their treatment as far as possible. This is one of the principal reasons for making the asylums small. The history of all the county asylums of Wisconsin is full of cases benefited by proper care and treatment.

The insane should be listened to patiently. Usually their delusions will not yield to any amount of argument or ridicule, which should not be attempted. The better way is to divert their attention to some subject not connected with the delusions. Much trouble and many fruitless efforts may be required, in some cases, before the right chord is struck. The superintendent and matron should not leave the work of waking up the dormant faculties of the insane to subordinates, but should give time and thought to it personally.

Much of this work will necessarily take the form of industrial training. Some most marvellous cures have been effected, in the apparently hopelessly chronic insane, by patient, intelligent training to do one kind of work after another. Something has also been done, with a few, by teaching games or book-knowledge. Something has also been done, with many, by appealing to their sense of propriety or to their honor. Privileges given on condition of good behavior, good clothes, good food, well cooked and plenty of it, pleasant surroundings, kind words, trusts imposed upon them, consultation of their wishes in matters where a choice can be given, liberty, and congenial occupation, will greatly improve all the chronic insane and cause the recovery of some.

A very important part of this moral treatment is to make the filthy insane cleanly. Besides the means spoken of, they should be taken to the privy, late at night and early in the morning, and at proper times during the day, until habits of propriety are established.

The chronic insane are creatures of habit, far more than sane people are. By patience and perseverance, most of their bad habits can be eradicated and good habits substituted therefor.

The insane should never be lied to. A promise made to an insane person should be kept as sacredly as one to a sane person. Deception of any kind should not be practised upon them.

They should not be fretted by teasing, or scolding, or threatening. No signs of fear of them should be shown, even if felt. The manners of all who deal with them should be natural, unaffected, and uniform. Attendants should not be allowed to irritate them, to bully them, or to order them around, much less to strike them, or quarrel with them. They should not assume that the insane are to blame for their eccentricities, but should treat them as they would sick persons who are out of their head.

In all intercourse with the insane, their mental infirmity should be borne with patiently. Bad words and bad behavior from them should not be resented, as if they were responsible persons.

New attendants will have to be specially trained in these principles. An occasional meeting of the officers and employés to discuss informally the treatment of the insane will also do the attendants much good.

In all this treatment of the chronic insane, it should be remembered that they are people with damaged brains, which are more or less capable of being repaired, but that such repairing is a slow process, and requires a combination of material and moral conditions which we can supply. If they cannot be cured, they can at least be improved in their mental condition, and treated as the wards of society instead of its enemies.

A man who is out of place is like a dislocated bone; he suffers and he causes suffering.—JOSEPH ROUX.

Nowhere, as yet, although we are in the nineteenth century, has the Christian experiment of combined kindness and condemnation of sin equally in man and woman been tried, or even so much as deliberately proposed. It would probably, now, after a complete failure of every other system, be pronounced chimerical and absurd. When we have exhausted all methods of quackery, we may come at last to the great Teacher of humanity, Jesus Christ.—REV. DR. ELIOT.